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ABSTRACT

This paper reviews and criticizes existing models of governance of teacher education and proposes alternative ones. Chapter I defines three models of governance including a) a bureaucratic model; b) a collaborative model; and c) a systems analysis model which is used to plan new models in the final chapters. Chapter II deals with the current perceptions of governance of teacher education. Responses to a 1972 Gallup Public Opinion poll are given as well as responses given by university professors to a governance opinionnaire. Chapter III emphasizes that each group desiring participation in the aspects of governing should be gauged in terms of the contributions' direct applicability to the program and that teachers should be prepared by a systematic program. This chapter also contains a discussion of seven components of a teacher education model and concludes with examples of governance models in teacher education programs. Chapter V stresses that implementation of governance models should be preceded by thorough planning and facilitated by adequate project management. The procedure for planning developed by Koontz & O'Donnell is listed and a planning model is examined which suggests that planning be divided into early and advanced phases. The project management section discusses criteria for identifying an undertaking as a project, general steps for planning and controlling a project, and guidelines for maintaining satisfactory project management. (PD)

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ALTERNATIVE MODELS FOR THE CO-OPERATIVE GOVERNANCE OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMS

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Human energies, bound and flowing,
form a stable system. Some are
involved in maintaining the structure;
some are expressed through it, with
various degrees of health; and some
are repressed or latent, connected with
unmet needs. The structure breaks.
An open space without coherent structure
results; a Chaos. . . . Out of Chaos, a
new coherence emerges, a new structure.
Energies flow and hang until change again
becomes necessary, and the process
repeats. . . .

Rossman (1972)

INTRODUCTION

In a lifetime one experiences school from many perspectives--those of preschool, grade school, middle school, high school, undergraduate and graduate school, teacher, colleague, expert, administrator, parent, PTA member/officer, school board member--and each of these perspectives is quite likely to feel like being on the OUTside looking IN. Each perspective seems to exist in isolation from the next, and carry-overs from one perspective to another are likely to take the forms of suspicions, vague notions, myths, and rumors.

As a parent one suspects that the preschooler's eagerness to follow older siblings to school will dissolve into disillusion all too soon. As an undergraduate one feels that surely graduate school will accommodate individuality and lend authority to one's independence of thought and personal integrity. As a first-year teacher, not yet one of the fellows nor accorded any special expertise, except perhaps uppityness and too many newfangled ideas, one tries to believe in the myth of tenure as reward for tenacity above and beyond the 16, 18, 21 years of study. As a school board member one wonders who started the rumor that the Board governs the schools.

Theoretically, each of these individuals and each of the perspectives which they represent is a part of the school system, but increasingly being <u>a part of</u> the school system has come to mean being <u>apart from</u> the school system in terms of actively participating in the vital decision-making processes of the system. In the seventies, especially, the concern of individuals and groups who feel themselves apart from, outside of, or alienated by the system's decision-makers has been directed toward their lack of participation in the governance and control of

of teacher education programs as they are planned and implemented by Colleges of Education throughout the nation. To this concern, whether expressed by communities, professional teachers organizations, state departments of education, student groups, deans of Colleges of Arts and Sciences, or individuals, Colleges of Education have been loath to respond actively. As the primary group responsible for the education of teachers, Colleges of Education have, understandably, various vested interests in retaining control over the educational personnel of the schools. Yet, the very personnel which the Colleges of Education have educated and placed in the school system have been critical of their preparation, saying that their teacher education programs have failed to prepare them for the realities of the classroom, to sensitize them to the realities of non-mainstream cultures, to develop in them the abilities or competencies needed to cope with the real world of the schools. To be both responsive to criticisms and responsible for criticisms is, thus, the dilemma of Colleges of Education confronting the issues of goverance and control of teacher education.

It is the purpose of this paper, then, to review the models of governance which have evolved for the control of teacher education programs in Colleges of Education, to criticize these existing models for the governance of teacher education, and to propose alternative processes and plans for Colleges of Education to use as they attempt revision and reformation of their governance models.

At the outset of this discussion, the term model should be defined. Applicable definitions from Webster's Dictionary (1967) include: ". . . a pattern of something to be made . . . an example for imitation or emulation . . . a description or

analogy used to help visualize something (as an atom) that cannot be directly observed." Horace and Ava English in A Comprehensive Dictionary of Psychological and Psychoanalytical Terms (1958) define a model as:

> . . . a description of a set of data in terms of a system of symbols, and the manipulation of the symbols according to the rules of the system. . . .
> . . . . . .
> Models are useful for discovery of hypotheses, not for verification of theories.

Naddor (1960) states, "A model is a representation of a system under study. . . ." Still referring to models, he goes on to say, "Other representations of systems may be in the schematic form of organization charts, flow charts, or graphs of various kinds. These can be used to depict or describe functional relationships. . . ."

Johnson, Kast, and Rosenzweig (1967) indicate that, "Construction of a model is a common technique of abstraction and simplification for studying the characteristics or behavioral aspects of objects or systems under various conditions."

An important feature of models is that not all the characteristics of the system under study need to be depicted. Usually only those elements are selected which have relevance to a particular line of research or a specific set of relationships. Churchman, Ackoff, and Arnoff (1957) state that, "Properties not pertinent to an investigation need not be included in the model."

There are commonly considered to be three types of models: iconic, analogue, and symbolic. Churchman, et al., (1957) explain that "a representation is an iconic model to the extent that its properties are the same as those possessed by what it represents." A photograph or a model ship would fit this classification. Analogues can represent many different processes of a similar type, so they are more general than are the iconic models. An analogue model, ". . . represents one set of

properties by another set of properties, . . ." Graphs and flow charts and diagrams fit into this classification and are "well suited for representing quantitative relationships between properties of classes of things." In a symbolic model, ". . . the components of what is represented and their interrelationship are given by symbols. The symbols employed are generally mathematical or logical in character. . . ."

The models which emerge in the pages ahead include diagrams for planning, as well as diagrams of governance structures and programs. Therefore, we will be dealing with both representational and non-representational analogue models.

Chapter I

HUMAN ENERGIES, BOUND AND FLOWING

What is it that a governance model is supposed To Be?

And, what is it that a governance model is supposed To Do?

Theorists of governance develop models to determine how human energies can be regulated to achieve the smoothest and most efficient flow of interactions among individuals within an organization. As the numbers of individuals increase, the more various the interactions and the more complex the models become. With this leap in the magnitude of complexity and variety, human energies are more and more regulated, more and more boundaried. The result is a governance model so efficient and so far removed from the individuals it governs that the flow of interactions is actually inhibited. Teacher education programs within Colleges of Education throughout the nation are becoming increasingly susceptible to the tensions and conflicts generated by present governance models. These programs, considered inadequate in themselves, have been developed from administrative governance policies. As these policies are viewed as determinants of programs, they are also being closely scrutinized for inadequacies, for failures to be both responsive to and responsible for the human energies and interactions within the education system. Thus, critics of the schools in our nation have begun to ask who is being governed and by whom, who should be governed and by whom, and to what purpose the present governance models are being maintained.

Present governance models are derived from organizational theory and follow either a bureaucratic or a collegial structure for authority and control. As

explained by Baldridge (1971), bureaucratic governance is "hierarchial and is tied together by formal chains of command and systems of communication," while collegial governance emphasizes "the professors' professional freedom,. . . consensus and democratic consultation,. . ." Yet, neither model exists in a pure state within academic governance, whether at the university-wide level or at the level of the College of Education and its departments or divisions. And neither model deals effectively in Baldridge's view "with power plays, conflict, and the rough-and-tumble politics of a large university." What both of these models leave out with regard to the human energies of the individuals involved, organized, and regulated is the "political" process of governance, the nitty-gritty of decision-making and the interactions between the many interest groups within the organization.

Starting from the premise, then, that Colleges of Education have been in control of teacher education utilizing bureaucratic or collegial models of governance to maintain this control, it will be useful to examine these models, their participants, and those to whom the models deny participation.

The Formal Chains of Command: BUREAUCRATIC GOVERNANCE

Federal, state, and local government make policy that in turn makes Colleges of Education, teachers, and schools what they are: this is the hierarchy, and each link in the chain of command replicates the form of the link superseding it. One critic of this structure for decision and policy making in American education has detailed "the facts of life" of such a model:

Fact 1. All power in the school structure rests in political institutions, i.e.: school boards, legislatures, Congress,

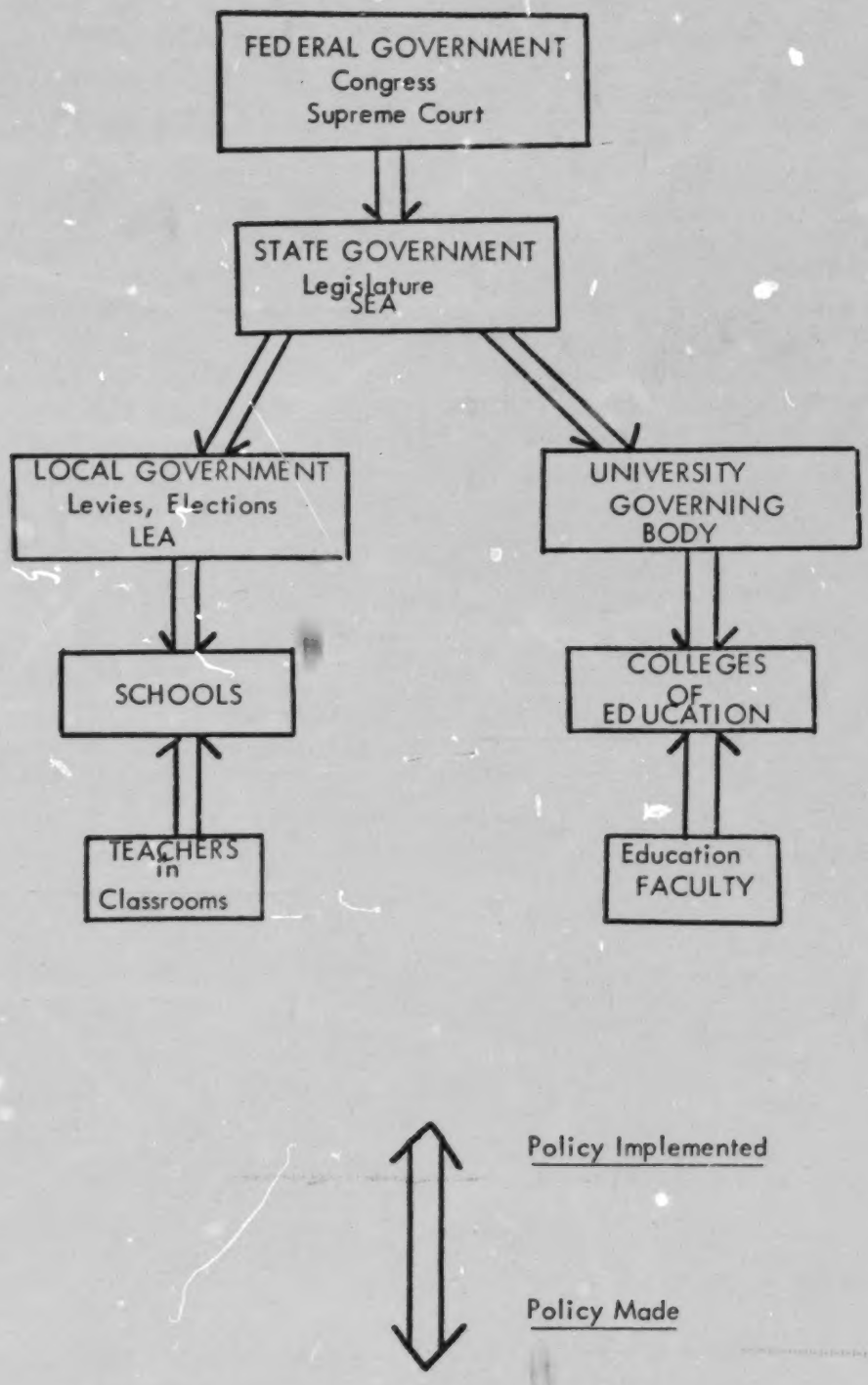
and the court system. Decisions and policy emanating from these bodies are the result of a political, not pedagogical process.

Fact 2. The power in the hands of American teachers is largely political, social and economic. The AFT and NEA, as expressions of unified teacher needs, act in all three areas, but the individual teacher is usually unable to find an expression for his needs in his classroom.

Fact 3. The power of the public is political and economic in nature. The public elects representatives, mounts pressure group efforts and passes on monetary issues. Too often decisions of the public are votes against rather than votes for something.

Fact 4. Students have no power but are in the process of assembling a social power similar to that found in higher education. Students are unlikely to deal in the same terms as the other groups involved in the system, rather they are likely to adopt civil and uncivil protest. Individual students, like individual teachers may be unable to relate this trend to personal needs.

Fact 5. Administrators are merely responding to the forces and problems they meet, they are not leading nor are they influencing any of the political, economic, social elements described under 1 - 4 above. (Heger, 1971)



The Formal Chains of Command: BUREAUCRATIC GOVERNANCE

Figure 1.

Campbell, Cunningham, and McPhee (1965) have developed a flow chart on policy formation in education which backs up one step farther in the delineation of the chain of command, showing "that policy grows out of the basic socioeconomic forces in our society which generate movements antecedent to policy, that these movements encourage political action, and that finally these activities lead to formalization of policy by governmental agencies." In their analysis of the flow of interactions from the society as a whole through federal, state, and local government to a teacher education program Campbell, Cunningham, and McPhee recognized in 1965 that national participation in educational policy making is "encouraged by the mobility of our population, the differential financial ability of the states, and the reluctance of most state legislatures to finance special projects needed by urban school districts." And they also pointed out the necessity of benefiting from the bureaucratic chain of command when they suggested that, "Those of us who would influence school policy must learn to ply our politics in the national arena just as we now do in local and state arenas." That Colleges of Education have recognized the benefits of their position in the hierarchy by becoming more "politic" in their relationships with government is to their credit.

Yet, the basic flaw of the bureaucratic model persists. Though this model explains adequately how to implement policies <u>after</u> they have been made, the fact remains that the links in the hierarchial chain have only the vaguest sense of participating in the very vital struggles of making the policy. The lower an educational unit exists in the hierarchy, the more remote those individuals in the unit are from interacting meaningfully with superiors, and the more remote the policies are from the realities which those individuals must live.

Figure 2: A Flow Chart on Policy Formation in Education.

I	II	III	IV
Basic Forces	*Antecedent Movements*	*Political Action*	*Formal Enactment*
Social, economic, political & technological forces, usually national & worldwide in scope	Usually national in scope such as the National Manpower Commission, Rockefeller Bros. studies, Conant studies, etc.	By organizations usually interrelated at local, state, & national levels such as U.S. Chamber of Commerce, AFL-CIO, & NEA	May be at local, state, & national levels; & through legislative, judicial, & executive agencies

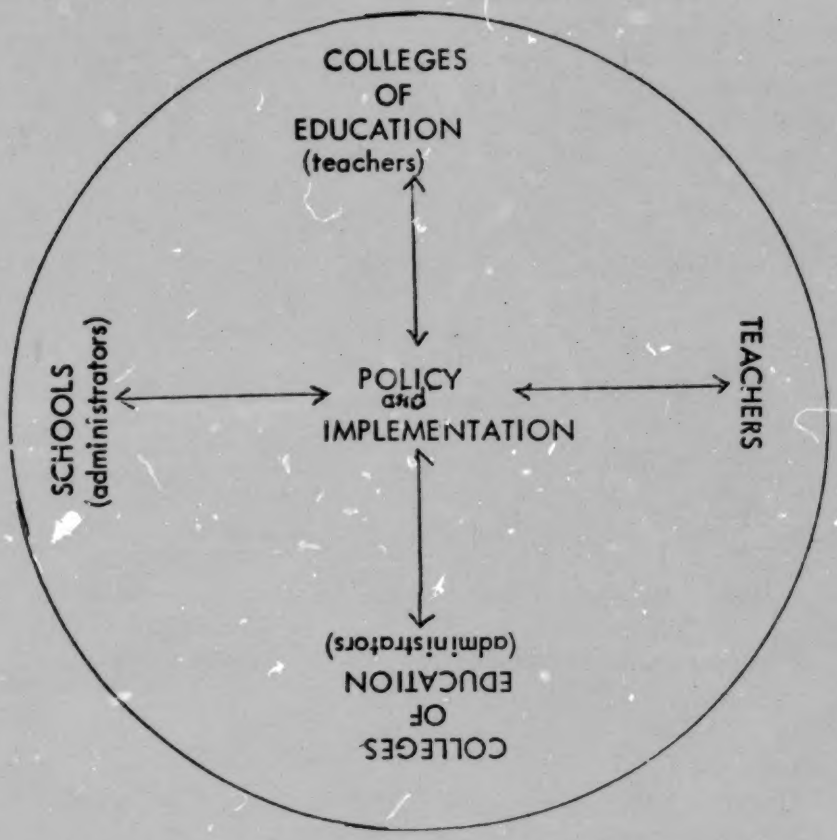
Campbell, Cunningham, and McPhee (1965)

Consensus and Democratic Consultation: COLLABORATIVE GOVERNANCE

In response to perceived inadequacies of the bureaucratic governance model, the collaborative model between schools and Colleges of Education has developed. It is a process for decision-making based on the collegial organizational model. In some ways it represents a coalition formed of schools, teachers, and Colleges of Education to combat the vitiating forces of the units higher in the hierarchy of the bureaucratic model. This coalition has also been called a community of scholars (cf. Millett, Goodman) or a company of equals (cf. Parsons), and its purpose is to expand the consensual and democratic consultation process observed in close professional colleagues to interinstitutional collaborative efforts for governing the preparation of educational personnel.

Unfortunately, the collaborative-collegial model has not proved immune to tensions, just as the bureaucratic model has been found to be flawed. Ladd (1969) has studied this model closely and has isolated some of the sources of tension likely to result in the coalition of schools, teachers, and Colleges of Education. He has found that the communications between public school persons and university people become strained as a result of:

1. The extent of dependence which each organization comes to have on the other, a condition which in turn will be a function of the extent to which the respective organizations extend their cooperation to activities which either of them by itself could not conduct, and/or commit themselves deeply or irrevocably to the collaboration, so that withdrawal from the arrangement



Consensus and Democratic Consultation: COLLABORATIVE GOVERNANCE

Figure 3.

is difficult or impossible.

And the extent to which this potential is converted into actual tensions will be a function of two secondary conditions:

2. The extent to which the purposes of the organizations diverge or conflict, rather than being neutral toward contributory to one another.

3. The extent to which the persons in the two organizations fall short of complete understanding of one another's cultures or subcultures, language, habits, and so on.

Ladd concludes that if schools and universities agree that they must achieve a mutual dependency in the future, then that agreement will have to include a merging of goals. No longer could the schools be the province of the learner, while the universities remained focused on learning; tensions would be reduced by recognizing those purposes which are neither common nor contradictory but neutral, compatible with one another, or even in a sense contributory to one another."

The Flow of Interactions: SYSTEMS ANALYSIS IN GOVERNANCE

In recent years the application of general systems theory to problems of university or college organization and management has received increasing support from federal and state legislators and educational administrators. Management by objectives, the systems of PPBS and PERT, and performance-based teacher education and certification have been utilized to provide explicit indices of accountability and responsibility in monitoring programs, especially in the allocation of financial resources. For these reasons, the concepts of systems

analysis constitute an alternative method of representing governance structures and strategies in higher education.

A system can be described as a set of variables among which there are relationships; a boundary encloses some of the variables; within the boundary is the system, and outside the boundary is that system's environment; and a mutual dependency exists between the system and its environment. The boundary surrounds certain selected variables where the exchange of energy (the strength of interaction) among the variables within the boundary is greater than the energy exchanged across the line. An organization perceived in this way is a set of variables (functions, processes, people, machines, etc.) defined by the relationship that exists among the variables. In this sense the elements comprising a school system have their strongest interactions with each other, and it is therefore possible to delineate this organization as a system distinct from its environment and other systems. Processes and tasks carried on within a school system can be further delineated into subsystems on the basis of the relative strengths of the inner system interaction of these variables (see Figures 4 and 5).

Parsons (1961) distinguishes an organization from other types of social systems by its orientation to the attainment of a specific goal. This goal-orientation is incorporated into the system concept by a number of writers. Kaufman and Corrigan (1967) comment:

> We use the word 'system' to indicate nothing more or less than the identification of all parts, working independently and in interaction to accomplish previously specified objectives.

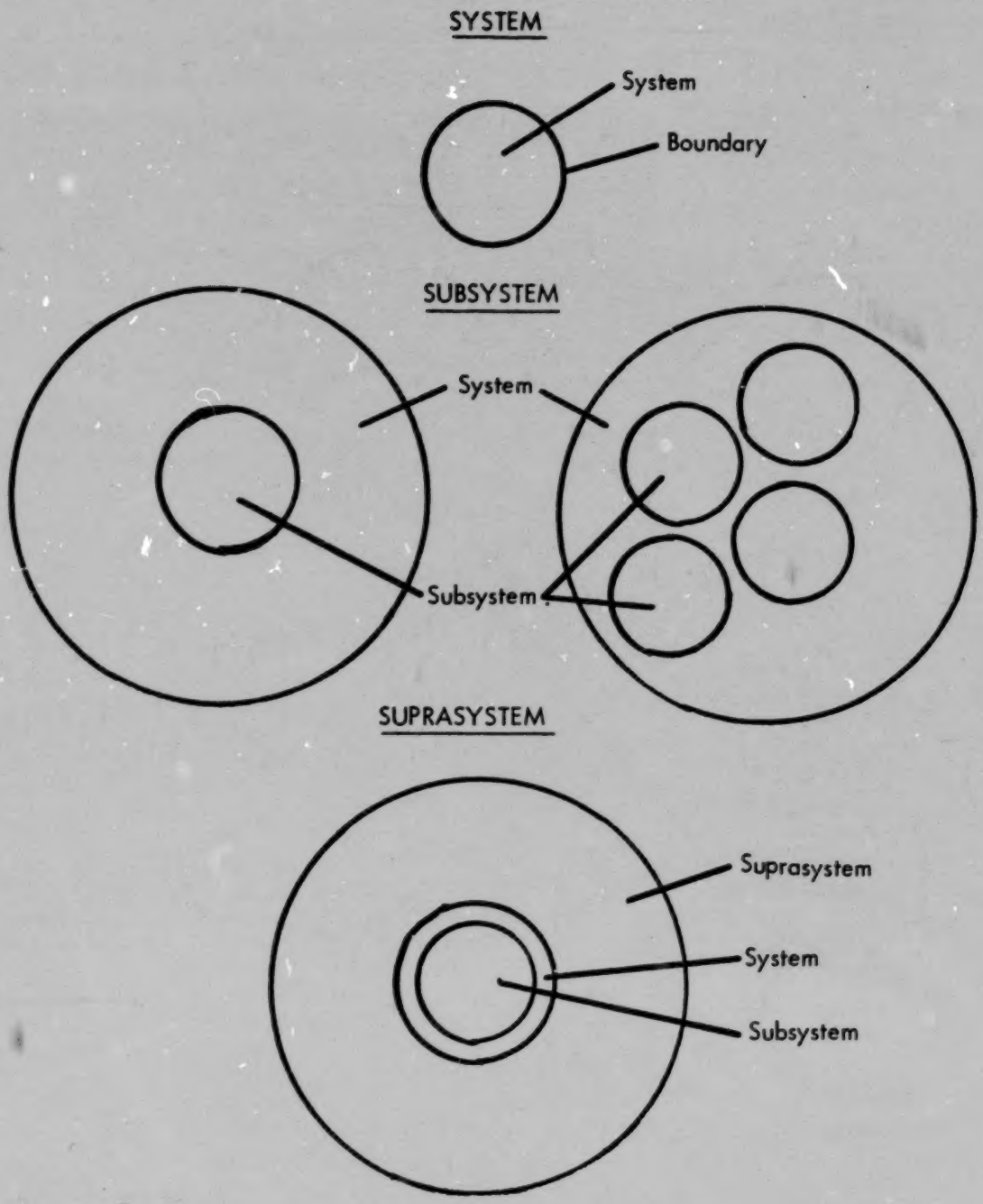

SYSTEM
System
Boundary
SUBSYSTEM
System
Subsystem
SUPRASYSTEM
Suprasystem
System
Subsystem

Figure 4.

ONE SYSTEM -- MULTIPLE SUPRASYSTEMS

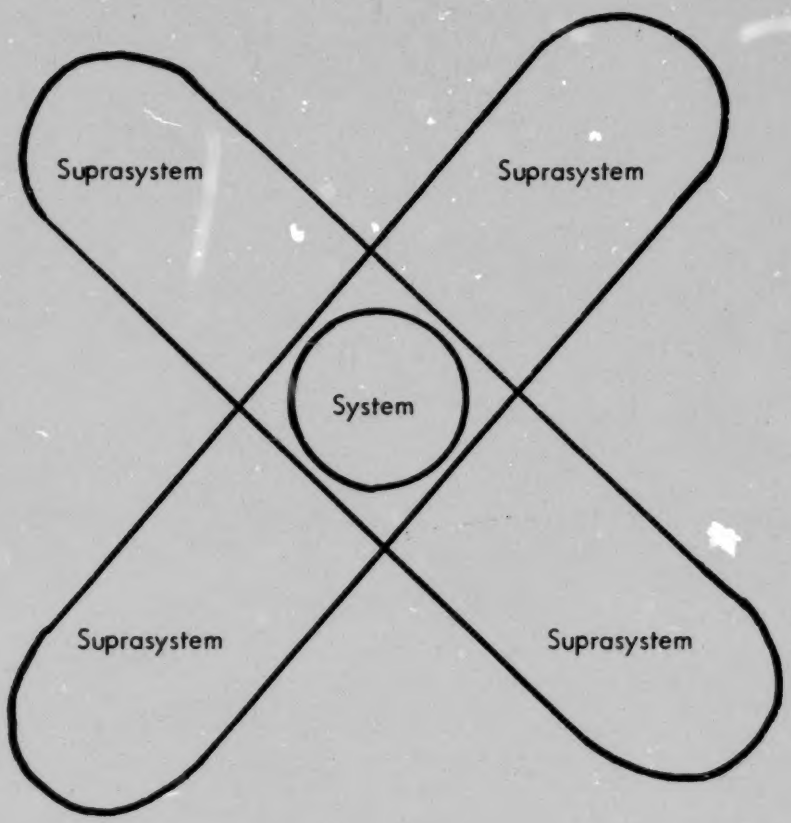


Figure 5.

Essentially, systems analysis involves the determination of objectives, the identification of the applicable system variables, and the ascertaining of which activities each variable must perform or the contribution each must make to achieve the objectives. A variety of alternatives are possible within certain constraints. Systems analysis is the process of evaluating these alternative courses of action in relation to available resources and their allocation.

Cook (1967) makes the valuable distinction of dividing systems analysis into two basic stages--analysis and synthesis. The analysis process involves division, dissection, disassembly, etc., into parts, activities, and/or tasks. The synthesis phase involves integration, unification, assembly, etc., into operation wholes or system illustrations. Kaufman and Corrigan (1967) explain that the system approach utilizes the steps of logical problem solving:

1. Determine needs
2. Determine what needs to be done--apply system analysis:
   (a) Develop mission objective.
   (b) Draw up a preliminary management plan--all the functions that have to be accomplished.
   (c) Analyze each function into sub-functions.
   (d) Break down into smaller sub-functions until tasks are identifiable.
3. Determine strategy--how can the job best be accomplished; how sequenced; most efficient ways; resources; how well do selected methods perform.
4. Determine how to implement in such a way as to provide for

feedback and control--implement a management and control subsystem.

5. Revision phase--utilize feedback to revise system if necessary.

Kast (1968) writes that "The systems approach to planning considers the enterprise as the integration of numerous decision-making subsystems." The primary function of long-range planning is that of system design involving (1) the establishment of goals, objectives, policies, procedures, and structural relationships on a systematic basis and (2) the provision for the flow of information to and from the planning centers. Planning is the means by which system change is accomplished. It enables systems to respond to various internal and environmental forces, to that, according to Kast, "The system approach to planning requires the continual evolution of plans based on the life cycle of the program."

Robert Howsam (1972), in analyzing the governance of teacher education via a systems approach, has proposed the placement of teacher training within the suprasystem of the organized profession as distinct from the suprasystems of the academic disciplines or the school systems served. The current status of teacher education is depicted in his analysis as interacting with the university, the state and school districts and the teaching profession. (See Figure 6 .) Howsam contends that "if education is to develop as a profession and make its optimal contribution, the ambiguity over the control of teacher education should be clarified. It should not be subject to direct control by either the state or the local education units." (See Figure 7.)

Howsam's use of systems analysis to reorganize the governance of teacher education is only one of the various applications that can be made of systems

TEACHER EDUCATION SUPRASYSTEMS: EXISTING

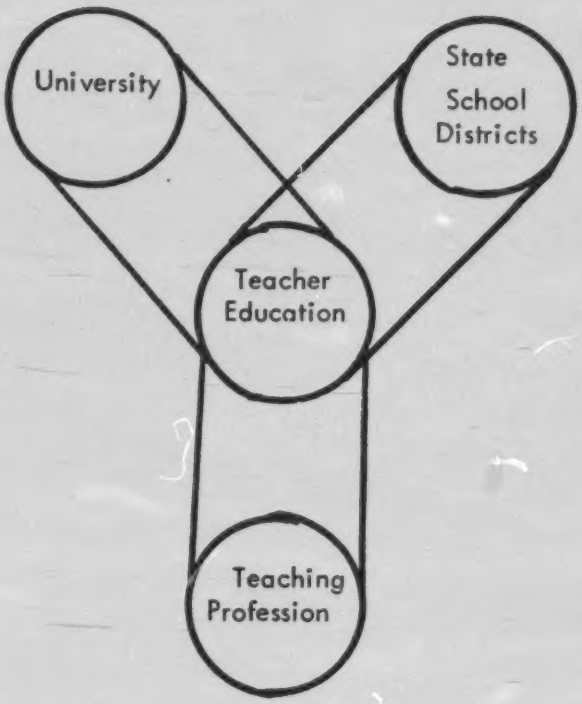


Figure 6.

TEACHER EDUCATION SUPRASYSTEMS: DESIRABLE

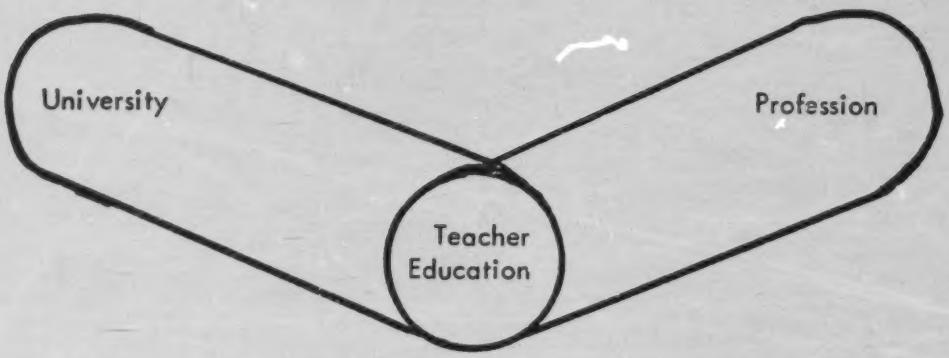


Figure 7.

concepts in the development of alternative governance models. What his approach exemplifies is that modern planners no longer perceive an organization as traditionally structured, bureaucratic, and hierarchical, but instead view it as ". . . a set of flows, information, men, material, and behavior" (Young, 1968). The systems approach is, then, a logical vehicle for incorporating current managerial technologies, such as Linear Programming, Game Theory, Dynamic Programming, PERT, etc., into the governance model. The manager's role becomes that of designing organizational or behavioral systems for the management and control of programs. The variables are analyzed, and alternatives are considered. The proposed activities and interactions become the outline for various elements required before the governance plan itself can be likewise analyzed and reconstituted in a logical pattern, often illustrated by means of flow charts, networks, or sequenced descriptive steps. It is this kind of analysis of the flow of interactions between governance strategies and program structures which will appear in the third and fourth chapters of this paper.

Chapter II

CURRENT PERCEPTIONS OF THE GOVERNANCE OF TEACHER EDUCATION

What is the public opinion of the results of teacher education program?

What is the UPEP opinion of the present structures governing teacher education?

What is the opinion of deans and other educators regarding needs for change in the governance of teacher education?

Public opinion is assessed by survey. Responses to the survey can be generalized to include the whole nation or specified to pinpoint only the local community. Respondents to the survey usually generalize from the microcosm to the macrocosm. In the Gallup Poll of Public Attitudes Toward Education for 1972 public opinion can be characterized as favorable though not particularly result-oriented. That is, citizens and professional educators responding to the survey view control in the classrooms (discipline) and finances for the school system as separate and distinct matters of concern that do not culminate in an overall governance procedure.

Major Problems Confronting the Public Schools in 1972 (from 1972 Gallup Poll):

> Discipline again ranks as the number one problem of the public schools, in the minds of the citizens of the nation. For one brief year, 1971, it dropped to third place in the list. This year discipline is restored to the top position held in earlier years.
>
> Based upon the number of mentions to the open question, 'What do you think are the biggest problems with which the public schools in this community must deal?,' the top problems are as follows:

1. Lack of discipline
2. Lack of proper financial support
3. Integration-segregation problems
4. Difficulty of getting 'good' teachers
5. Large school, too large classes
6. Parents' lack of interest
7. Lack of proper facilities
8. Poor curriculum
9. Use of dope, drugs

. . . . . .

The professional educators interviewed in this same survey regard school finances as the number one problem, followed in order by integration/ segregation, discipline, parents' lack of interest, quality of teaching, curriculum, use of dope and drugs, and lack of proper school facilities.

The public's desire for stricter school policies bearing on discipline has been manifested in many ways in the years since these annual CFK Ltd. surveys were established. The present survey adds further evidence.

In What Ways Are the Local Public Schools Particularly Good?:

Relatively few citizens ever stop to think about the good things the public schools are doing. It is much easier to complain. To find out just what the typical citizen thinks his own schools are 'doing right', this question has been included in all CFK Ltd. surveys: In your own opinion, in what ways are your local schools particularly good?

The responses, in order of mention, follow:

1. The curriculum
2. The teachers
3. School facilities
4. Equal opportunity for all
5. No racial conflicts
6. Extracurricular activities
7. Up-to-date teaching methods

8. Good student-teacher relationships
9. Good administration
10. Small school or small classes

> Because of the absence of objective data by which to judge local schools, responses are almost never stated in terms of achievement, of success in reaching educational goals, or the product itself--the graduates.
>
> Even professional educators are unlikely to judge the schools by results. When they were asked this same question, they named, in order: curriculum, teachers, equal opportunity for all students, school facilities, up-to-date teaching methods, no racial conflicts, good student-teacher relationships, extra-curricular activities, good administration, small school or small classes (Phi Delta Kappan, 1972).

As Martin Haberman (1973) has pointed out, the public knows the present status of education in the nation by referring to a particular school building which their children or they themselves have attended. Criticisms of the governance of teacher education programs, then, are most likely to ensue from parents concerned about one teacher in one classroom who is perceived as functioning ineffectively with the local school children; thus, the program which produced this one teacher may be considered inadequate or faulty.

The perspective from which the Undergraduate Preparation of Educational Personnel Program, authorized by Congress under the Education Amendments Act of 1972 and the Education Professions Development Act, views the present structures governing teacher education is national, rather than one teacher, one school, one program at a time. The UPEP statements ". . . focus on several salient difficulties that diminish the effectiveness of the present system of educating teachers--the fractionalization of responsibility for teacher education among the schools of education, the liberal arts, and the school systems; the inadequacy

of the professional sequence; and the failure to rationalize recruitment, screening, and counseling for prospective educators." This focus is appropriate for the national panorama of teacher education, which, as Robert H. Koff (1972) has argued persuasively, "suffers from lack of status; it is given low academic priority within institutions of higher education and in most state and federal categorical aid programs. In addition, there is usually little national or state-wide interaction between institutions of higher learning and school districts in the areas of preservice and continuing education, and there is usually little formal national or regional dissemination of teacher education curricula; . . . ." To raise the priority given teacher preparation and to reduce the fragmentation of its governance are the impetus forming the UPEP perceptions of the national education system.

Beyond public opinion and the UPEP's national focus on the problems of governance in teacher preparation, Colleges of Education also contribute perceptions and opinions. In an effort to assess the present climate of opinion among deans of Colleges of Education as to the pressures they feel to change governance and program structures, the following questionnaire was circulated to selected administrators across the nation.

GOVERNANCE QUESTIONNAIRE

At the present time, most Teacher Education programs are controlled and governed by Colleges of Education. Recently, several other groups--school systems, communities, state departments of education, colleges of arts and sciences, and progessional teachers organizations--have indicated a need to participate in or take over completely the education of teachers.

Criticisms of present graduates suggest that many are not adequately prepared for the realities of the classroom, that they are insensitive to non-mainstream cultures, that much of their training is irrelevant, that their university professors are out of touch with reality, etc.

1. In what ways are present systems of training teachers inadequate relative to program and governance?

2. What changes in the governance structure would you suggest in order to integrate one or more of the groups mentioned above?

3. How would such structural changes influence the quality and the characteristics of Teacher Education graduates?

4. What other effects would you anticipate from such changes in governance?

Responses to the questionnaire varied widely and provide insights into the complexities of the governance problem. Excerpts from the responses for each of the four questions reveal this variety and complexity.

1. In what ways are present systems of training teachers inadequate relative to program and governance?

Donald E. Orlosky
Associate Director of LTI
Professional Educational Leadership
University of South Florida

> I doubt if a settlement of the governance question will have much to do with improving the training of teachers. The real issue is what the training program of teachers should be, rather than who decides what the program should be.
>
> The major difficulty currently in the training programs of preservice teachers is that:
>
> 1. Students are "talked at" instead of trained.
> 2. Programs are too broad and vague--they try to do too much and don't do any of it as well as they could.
> 3. The distinction between preservice and in-service training is unclear and it is difficult to say what the preservice program has accomplished in contrast to what the in-service program ought to do.
> 4. Materials for training teachers in concept and skill acquisition are in short supply.
> 5. Appropriate blending of university talent and public school talent is lacking.

Harry N. Rivlin
Dean, School of Education at Lincoln Center
Fordham University

> Because usually only the college or university faculty and administrators plan and conduct teacher education programs, there is little provision for the contributions that could be made by the students in the program, by the schools in which

these students will be teaching, or by the communities they will serve. As a result, teacher education programs are too often conducted in lock-step fashion, with little recognition of the wide range of individual differences among the students. There may also be too great a gap between the university's emphasis on how children should be taught and the ways in which they are actually being taught in today's schools. Unless the programs do make specific provision for familiarizing prospective teachers with our culturally diverse populations, these teachers may not understand or be able to establish rapport with the children they are expected to teach.

Benjamin Rosner
Dean, Teacher Education
The City University of New York

I do not believe that the major problem confronting teacher education programs today is a problem of governance. In my judgment, the major problems are (a) an imbalance in curricular emphasis, and (b) inadequate instructional materials and measurement procedures.

The curriculum imbalance problem is a matter of allocating as much as 90 percent of instructional time available to teacher education to the acquisition of knowledges, appreciations and understandings and as little as 10 percent of the time to the development of pedagogic skills. The perceived irrelevance of teacher education would be significantly diminished if teacher education programs allocated perhaps 50 percent of their curriculum to the development of instructional and other pedagogic skills with much of the skill development occurring in the work setting. In other words, there is a need for a field centered teacher education program dedicated in large measure to the development of pedagogic skill with a corresponding reduction in emphasis on general appreciations and understandings.

Although it is possible for teacher education faculties operating within the context of higher education to correct this curricular imbalance on their own initiative, the pace of change is likely to be accelerated if the large professional education community (teachers, school administrators) were given a greater voice in the determination of teacher education curricula. This greater

voice would be assured if representatives of the teaching profession and representatives of the school administration were invited by schools and colleges of education to share in the curriculum development and approval process.

The presence of school personnel on college of education curriculum approval and other policy making committees would have the effect of sensitizing education faculties to the needs of professional personnel in the schools and, accordingly, would tend to emphasize the development of pedagogic skill.

The present lack of instructional materials and assessment procedures tends to introduce too great a degree of individual faculty flexibility in the determination of the content and standards of the teacher education program. The need for measurement procedures to establish standards of pedagogic excellence is obvious. Instructional materials concerned with the development of important pedagogic concepts and significant pedagogic skills would also strengthen the power of the teacher preparation curricula.

To a degree, then, the inadequate participation of school personnel in teacher training programs can be corrected by changes in governance, but significant improvement in teacher education curricula will need to be accompanied by the development of multi-media instructional systems and assessment procedures.

Dr. Herbert Heger
Associate Director, Louisville Urban
Education Center
University of Kentucky

Since a system of governance determines factors like personnel responsibility and accountability, it would seem that an ideal system of governance would equitably represent those persons or groups with legitimate concerns about and input for the particular endeavor. The present situation is simply that no system of governance can be said to exist. Teachers are under school board governance with some governance from professional groups. Teacher education is primarily responsible to individual university governance systems, systems which are dominated by groups. In theory all of this is held together by state government--

universities and school systems are both agencies and creatures of the state. Even here, governance is fragmented and ineffectual with power in one place for school governance, another for university governance and yet another for certification of teachers. If one defines a system in terms of functional criteria, equity criteria, and data flow criteria (to name a few) the only conclusion is that there is no operational system of governance of teacher education. This system should be a subsystem of a larger system of governance of education, but even this does not really exist.

The only place where all aspects of the governance of education come together is in the legislature which is overloaded to the point of near collapse in most states. The answer to the question, then, is that there is no governance system for teacher education, but there is a need for one.

2. What changes in the governance structure would you suggest in order to integrate one or more of the groups mentioned above?

Donald J. McCarty
Dean, School of Education
University of Wisconsin--Madison

Ideally, I think Schools of Education in major universities should provide the leadership for melding together the various reference groups. To some degree we are doing this. In Wisconsin the state has mandated a Human Relations requirement for teacher certification; as a result, we will be trying to make new teachers sensitive to non-mainstream cultures. What I am trying to say is that changes in governance structures do not resolve substantive problems. It is not structure so much which impedes growth, it is lack of will. In sum, if individuals really want to reach an objective, they will adjust their present structure to accommodate to their purposes. I am always turned off by management specialists who try to sell a new procedure whatever its theoretical merits as the answer to substantive issues. Ends are more important than means.

Sam P. Wiggins
Dean, College of Education
The Cleveland State University

The academic and professional sectors of the university faculty need to join forces with professional school personnel

in establishing a viable set of objectives which build upon knowledge and its application with reference to public education. . . .

The second question has to do with how we work toward establishing consensus among the voices of professional personnel and laymen with reference to the objectives of the schools and ways of achieving them, including the appropriate nature of continuing teacher education experiences. I am greatly concerned over the prospect that our shortsighted selfishness will take the ascendency over our enlightened self-interest so that the issue of governance, in the sense of a power struggle, may become self-destructive of the teacher education agencies in the universities and in the schools.

. . . . I think it is important to look at governance on a stratified basis, with one stratum representing a broad advisory base and the upper stratum being the groups where ultimate decisions must rest. At the foundation, I would think that the teacher education curriculum should be looked at together by three categories of personnel in the university and two categories in the schools. Within the university a teacher education council should include individuals in the general education area, the area of teaching specialties of prospective teachers, and the area of the professional dimension of teacher education. Only in this way can we view the selection and preparation of teachers in anything approaching a true perspective. It is equally important, at this juncture, to involve both instructional personnel and administrative personnel in the schools to help those of us in the university to become aware of some realities of which we are not always mindful. I see such a broad based council, therefore, operating to provide the setting for the development and revision of teacher education programs. For good measure, I think it would leaven the loaf very well indeed to have student representation on such a broad based council.

Harry N. Rivlin
Dean, School of Education at Lincoln Center
Fordham University

As part of Fordham's TTT program, members of school faculty and community organizations participated in appropriate faculty activities and members of the university faculty worked in the schools and in community organizations. Our teacher education programs benefited so much from this close association and from having these non-university faculty people participate

in curriculum building and policy making that we hope these relationships can be continued after TTT funding has ceased.

The students in each of our four graduate divisions elect three representatives [for a total of 12] who may attend all faculty meetings, divisional meetings, and committee meetings, with the right to speak and to vote. In addition, all students in the preservice program may participate fully in the bi-weekly meetings of the faculty who conduct this program.

3. How would such structural changes influence the quality and the characteristics of teacher education graduates?

Asa Hilliard
Dean, School of Education
California State University
San Francisco

I see no particular problem in the governance of teacher education. The issue is really how to gain input from all those areas which must be considered in the training of teachers. To call for input is not the same as to call for control. It is the ultimate responsibility of the School of Education to oversee the total program of teacher preparation. In carrying out this responsibility, professionals would be remiss if expert contributions to planning, execution, and evaluation were not received from teacher educators who work from the school districts across campus and within the School of Education. However, it would be a serious mistake to attempt to divide responsibility three ways. We have already seen the difficulty which occurred when we attempted to diffuse the responsibility for teacher education under the banner of all University Teacher Education Programs. Following this reasoning, University school district programs must be of the kind where expertise is utilized from both areas, directions are discussed by members of both areas but the ultimate responsibility must remain with institutions who are charged to prepare teachers. . . .

In view of the fact that I would have serious questions about fundamental changes in governance, as indicated above, it should be clear that I regard those changes as unfortunate. It is not governance in teacher education which creates the quality problem, it is the need to do a complete, top-to-bottom revamping of the curriculum in light of what we now know which should claim our full attention.

Luvern L. Cunningham
Dean, College of Education
The Ohio State University

> . . . . I feel that improved communication between people in the field and the campus will yield good results, that program modifications growing out of recommendations emanating from practitioners will be constructive and that universities utilizing this medium of idea exchange will impact more forcefully and helpfully on education in local school systems.

Samuel R. Keys
Dean, College of Education
Kansas State University

> In responding to your question pertaining to changes in the structure, I might suggest that individuals from the Arts and Sciences area, particularly the areas of sociology and of poor and of urban areas, could some way or another be involved in teamwork with professors of Education. Persons who are more recently informed about research and developments in fields of the behavioral sciences can influence professors as they work with teachers in the field. Certainly, having university professors in contact with live teenagers and elementary school youth will do much to assist in their retraining.
>
> The only effect that I would see that this could have other than on governance would perhaps be in costs and logistics. Moving a portion of the training program out into the field presents many problems, not only for the faculty, but for students as well. Being removed from the library, from the university activities, and from advisors, oftentimes presents innumerable problems.

4. What other effects would you anticipate from such change in governance?

Roy Forbes
Director, Louisville Urban
Education Center
Kentucky

> An advise and consent committee composed of representatives from schools and community educational organizations (e.g., neighborhood school boards) should be established. They would have the

responsibility to review and approve new training programs. The State Department of Education and the K.E.A. [Kentucky Education Association, affiliate of N.E.A.] would serve as a resource of the committee.

These changes would provide a first step toward the accountability of persons responsible for training programs to the two levels of consumers of the service, i.e., teachers and the public.

Donald J. McCarty
Dean, School of Education
University of Wisconsin--Madison

. . . . I think governance mechanisms will remain pretty much the way they are now and that minor improvements will be made but that no drastic shift is likely or even wanted by the vast populace. The Gallup polls show that, in general, the public likes the schools. Why should there be much change then?

Luvern L. Cunningham
Dean, College of Education
The Ohio State University

. . . these relationships will add new time burdens in the field as well as persons on campus. There will be more meetings, more report preparation, more weight on already overburdened management and delivery capabilities. Despite these observations, improved ways to bring the campus and the field together can only lead to strength on both sides.

Benjamin Rosner
Dean, Teacher Education
The City University of New York

It is likely that the participation of school systems and professional teacher organizations in the governance of teacher education will have the effect of professionalizing undergraduate teacher education programs to a far greater degree than presently exists. In those situations where departments of education are part of a college of liberal arts and sciences, it would tend to subject the total undergraduate curriculum to the external influence of teacher organizations and school

> systems. This arrangement might then present difficulties for arts and science faculties who do not feel the need to respond to the professional demands of school personnel as much as faculties in departments of education.

Ensuing from these various responses to the questionnaire is the consensus that governance and program are vitally interconnected, especially when changes in either entity are contemplated. A comprehensive view of the interdependence between governance and program is provided in the following summary statement from George Denemark, Dean of the College of Education at the University of Kentucky:

"Resolution of the current controversy regarding its governance is the central issue confronting teacher education today. Equitable roles for schools, colleges, communities, the organized profession, and state and national governmental agencies must be established. Without clarification of the roles appropriate to each and without effecting a balance among them which reflects their unique potential contributions, the future of teacher education is bleak. The present ambiguities and conflicts regarding governance, if unresolved, are likely to result in the demise of higher education as a significant force in influencing the nature of teacher education. Should the control of teacher education fall solely into the hands of employing school systems or to the organized teaching profession, preparation dimensions concerned with diagnostic and analytical functions and with the concept of the teacher-scholar would likely be neglected and wither away.

"Any fair-minded observer of the past and the present teacher education scene would concede that college teacher educators have devoted insufficient

attention to insuring effective cooperation of representatives of school systems and the organized profession. But recognizing that serious shortcoming does not provide a basis for substituting a new imbalance for the old one. We cannot condone the elimination of higher education from teacher education governance as a reaction to its historic neglect of the other partners concerned with the nature and quality of teacher education.

"The problem of governance of teacher education, however, cannot be understood adequately unless we have some appreciation of the uniquely demanding role expected of schools or colleges of education. In their role as liaison agents between schools on the one hand and academic colleagues within the university on the other, college teacher educators often find themselves frustrated by their inability to meet the expectations of either element. Pressured by university colleagues to accept a conventional academic view of their role, which emphasizes basic scholarship while keeping school and community commitments to a minimum, they are at the same time criticized by school systems for providing insufficient help on the grinding problems of slums and suburbs, of maintaining discipline in a growingly permissive culture with weakening family ties, and of coping with serious reading disabilities and other individual needs in a mass educational system.

"The view that teacher education is currently controlled by colleges of education is a distortion of reality. Most colleges and universities are dominated by arts and sciences departments and tend to attach low status to programs and personnel in teacher preparation. As a consequence, James Stone has described

teacher education as a "stepchild," unwanted by the colleges, and Hobert Burns has urged that we "consider transferring much of the responsibility from colleges and universities to the public schools." . . . since "many colleges, perhaps even most, have not taken seriously the obligation to teacher education. . . ." The lack of effective influence in the power structure of higher education as it relates to program decisions and the allocation of resources has kept colleges of education from responding effectively to changing preparation needs of the school systems and the profession they seek to serve.

"Without fundamental changes in the governance structure for teacher education, higher education is likely to continue to respond inadequately to changing needs in teacher preparation. But substitution of school system or teacher organization control for domination by higher education is likely to worsen rather than improve the situation. In my opinion what is needed is a new governance structure which provides for shared or cooperative involvement in teacher education by colleges and universities, school systems, and the organized profession with provision for participation of citizen and college student representatives as well. If such a plan is to work both universities and school systems will have to commit themselves to giving up some authority to such a governing body. Since the body would likely deal with a broad range of issues related to teacher education, certification, accreditation, and professional standards, it is likely that a different mix or proportion of representation from the various constituencies would be needed for the different decision making areas. For example, classroom teacher involvement in issues relating to performance

standards in the classroom would likely be greater than it would be in cases involving the accreditation of college or university programs of teacher preparation.

"The concept of voluntary control over accreditation and professional standards is in my judgment an important one to preserve. Governance structures which would increase the control exercised by the federal or state governments through the granting or withholding of funds would seem to be antithetical to this view and should, therefore, be resisted.

"I would expect that the changes in governance suggested above would influence significantly the quality and characteristics of teacher education graduates. If an effective, cooperative governance structure could be established for teacher preparation, the mix between theory and practice or contextual and applicative knowledge would likely be greatly improved. The influence of community, school system, and teacher involvement in planning teacher education programs would likely result in greater emphasis upon performance and operational skill in the tasks of the teacher. They would likely also produce an increased emphasis upon what the graduate of a program can do in contrast to what courses or which program he completed. The structure could also have a healthy influence in terms of more effective integration of preservice and in-service or continuing education of teachers. Presently the false separation of these weakens both, for each is frequently planned and conducted without reference to the other. If both could be seen as essential parts of the continuum of professional preparation, greater efficiency would result at both preservice and continuing education levels.

"If a genuinely effective mechanism for cooperative decision making in teacher education were established, it could greatly enhance the status of teacher education and increase the allocation of resources devoted to it. At present, college-based teacher education gets little endorsement from either teacher organizations or employing school officials. As a consequence, when priority decisions are contemplated by university-wide administrators, there is often very little support from outside the university for the needs of the college of education. If through a modified governance structure colleges of education could generate greater support from school systems and teacher organizations, their position within the university structure would be strengthened materially. That, in turn, could permit the college of education to propose and implement more imaginative, flexible programs adapted to changing field needs. Innovative practices, such as increased field based study, performance based and modularized programs, pass-fail grading coupled with evaluative anecdotal statements, etc., would likely be increased. Joint appointments between school systems and colleges and universities would also likely increase. Greater differentiation of mission of particular institutional teacher education programs might also occur. Rather than every college or university attempting to offer comprehensive programs covering all fields, all specialities and all teaching environments, institutions influenced by community and school system representatives in a particular region might focus their programs on service to that region.

"Let me conclude where I began by expressing the conviction that unless the ambiguities regarding governance of teacher education are resolved and mechanisms

are created for the equitable involvement of school systems and the teaching profession along with higher education, teacher education will never generate the public confidence and support it requires."

Chapter III

TOWARD THE RE-VISION OF GOVERNANCE, PROGRAMS, AND MODELS

It is not the purpose of this paper to specify a particular model of governance that should be utilized by all teacher education programs. Not every program could benefit from the same kinds and styles of administrative inputs. Rather, the models developed here are intended to provide a set of alternatives which can be used in a variety of ways. If there was a major element of agreement among those who contributed ideas to this project, it was that governance, and other elements, such as credentialling and accreditation, were intimately interwoven with the program elements of teacher education. Thus, one cannot talk about administrative structures for teacher education in isolation from the courses, experiences, and objectives intended for the students progressing through these programs.

Once governance and program are recognized as interdependent, then, the contributions of each group desiring participation in any of the aspects of governing, planning, and evaluating programs will have to be gauged in terms of the contributions' direct applicability to the program. This assumption may be seen as subverting the intent to provide greater inputs from groups which traditionally have been excluded from participation in such governance; however, that is not the case at all. Instead, we simply mean to emphasize that the standard for any group's participation in governance should be determined by the extent to which the program can be meaningfully influenced by that participation.

Another major assumption which must be made is that teachers should be prepared by means of a systematic program. The major responsibility for the education of children should not reside with persons who are untrained in those academic disciplines which have a bearing on how children learn and on human (and societal) growth and development. Resources and personnel from the community are, of course, a rich source of supplementary help for the teacher. But to give the major teaching responsibility to staff members whose credentials to teach are based on non-educational skills obviates the need for a teacher training program--and that leaves nothing to govern.

One further point which needs to be made is that this discussion deals solely with the governance of teacher education programs. It is concerned with, but not addressing itself to, the governance of the schools, of the universities, or even of the Colleges of Education. It does address itself to how these and other groups relate to and control the programs of teacher education. Once this distinction is made, it is helpful to separate out the influence each group has on the child, on the classroom teacher, and on the prospective teacher. Such analyses of these influences help to clarify the type and the extent of changes that can be brought about in what happens to children in an educational program (public school or otherwise) by manipulating only the teacher education program. A clearer conception of the differential influences which the various groups can have on the in-school experiences of children is illustrated in Table I.

The importance of program considerations has been stressed frequently so far, and a conceptual framework for program determination would be helpful.

Table I.

DIFFERENTIAL DIRECT INFLUENCE OF VARIOUS GROUPS IN SITUATIONS AFFECTING THE EDUCATION OF CHILDREN

	College of Education	College of Arts & Scs.	School System	Community	Teacher Organizations	State Department
School Curriculum	Moderate	Moderate	High	Low	Low	High
Extracurricular Activities i.e., Scouts, Little League Bank, Choir, "Y", etc.	Low	Low	High	High	Low	Low
Teachers' Skills	High	Moderate	Moderate	Low	Low	Moderate
Teachers' Knowledge Base	Moderate	High	Low	Low	Low	Moderate
Teachers' Values and Attitudes	High	High	Moderate	Low	Moderate	Low
Milieu of School	Low	Low	High	Low	Moderate	Low
Milieu of Community	Low	Low	Low	High	Low	Low
Families' Support of Educational Goals	Low	Low	Moderate	High	Low	Low
School Finance	Low	Low	High	Moderate	Low	High
Hiring of Teachers	Low	Low	High	Low	Low	Low
Credentialling	High	Low	Low	Low	Low	High
Teachers' Working Conditions	Low	Low	High	Low	High	Low

A further step is then to relate the appropriate influence group to the program elements. Figure 8 depicts the design components of a teacher education program model. The first component in this model is the setting in which the teacher is expected to function (cultural, social, physical, etc.). Community groups, school systems, and teacher organizations can have extensive inputs relating to these factors. The difficulty of the program is the inability to predict precisely where graduates of the program will finally be teaching. To prepare some one for a very specific setting may become a distinct hindrance to that person if he eventually ends up teaching in a setting which is drastically different from that for which he was prepared. Yet, by keeping the program too general, the graduates may not be provided with the necessary skills for work with certain sub-cultures.

A second component of a teacher education program is the desired impact the teacher is expected to have on the children, on the community, and indirectly on the society in general. Program implications will vary with the expected outcomes--children should know basic knowledge, or children should be individualistic and creative, or teachers should be change agents in the community.

A third component is the desired functional style of the teacher. Should the teacher be prepared to be a lecturer, a discussion leader, a diagnostician, a manager of learning experiences, or what? Innovative roles may be developed by college or school systems, but these may be resisted in some cases by parents, even by some teachers themselves.

A fourth component is composed of the attitudes, values, and philosophical perspectives which are desirable for functioning optimally as a teacher in a multi-

DESIGN COMPONENTS OF A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM MODEL

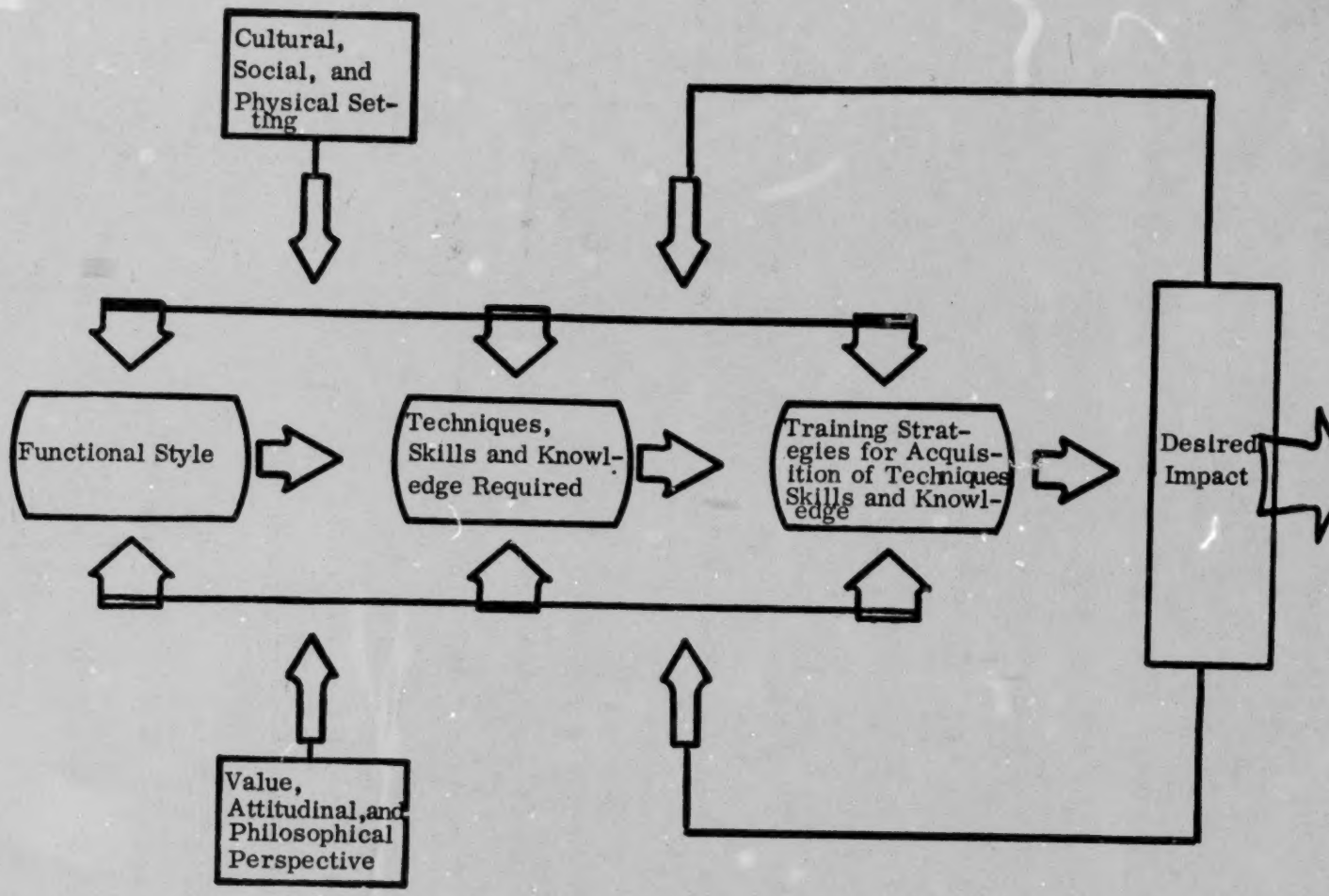

Cultural, Social, and Physical Setting
Functional Style
Techniques, Skills and Knowledge Required
Training Strategies for Acquisition of Techniques Skills and Knowledge
Desired Impact
Value, Attitudinal, and Philosophical Perspective

Figure 8.

cultural setting. Universities can make substantial contributions in these areas, but research suggests that to date there has been very little shifting in major values of college students during their undergraduate career. Community influence can also be a positive factor in adding experiences and understandings of other cultures. However, there can be danger in this influence, if the community point of view happens to be a conservative, mainstream posture.

The fifth component deals with the skills and techniques required to function as a teacher in the modes mentioned above (instructional methodology, diagnostic skills, management skills, etc.). Colleges can make vital inputs to this, and school systems and cooperating classroom teachers can provide some of the practical know-how and experience.

A sixth component of the model involves the desired knowledge base for teachers functioning at the various grade levels and in the various subject areas. Inputs are possible and relevant here from all the agencies. State departments of education are concerned at the certification level (and its implications for quality instruction), as well as at the school level in terms of basic subject matter achievement. Colleges of Arts and Sciences are already very much involved with providing teachers with their subject matter knowledge-base, and this strong interest would logically continue. Parents often measure the quality of a school informally by the headway their children make in the traditional subjects. This represents an area of strong parental concern, but parents themselves must rely on the universities to do most of the actual training in these areas.

The seventh component involves the specific strategies for developing in the prospective teacher the necessary techniques, skills, knowledge, and attitudes for functioning in the various modes derived from the components considered above. This is where the ideas and desires of the several interest groups must be converted into realistic educational activities, in order to produce teachers who will actually perform in ways which have been determined to be particularly desirable. This is where the concept of inter-systemic planning can have the greatest impact. It is here that all of the previously mentioned model components--representing inputs from and cooperation among the various groups and systems--are synthesized into training activities. Therefore, the training configuration will be composed of these seven components: cultural factors; desired impact and role of teacher; functional style of teacher; appropriate teacher attitudes and values; the necessary knowledge base; and required technical skills. The ingredients of these components can be determined by a variety of inter-systemic planning models. The discussions to follow try to outline some ways of promoting this cooperation.

One additional point of clarification is needed before considering actual governance models. The assumption has been that teachers would be trained in some kind of systematic program. Whatever form such a program may take, students will need to progress through various phases before finally arriving at the stage of employability as a teacher. A model developed by Stilwell and Gyuro (1971) depicts these phases and the activities to be accomplished in each phase (see Table II).

In the "admission" phase, the prospective students apply to the program, their credentials are evaluated, and a decision about their admissability is made.

Table 1.

SCHEMA FOR PROGRESSION THROUGH AND APPRAISAL IN A TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

TEP Phases	Admission	Program Progression	Graduation	Certification
Process Elements	Apply for Admission to TEP Evaluate Status Decision Situation	Accomplish Program Requirements Monitor Performance Evaluate Outcome Decision Situation	Summary Review of Performance Evaluation Qualifications Decision Situation	Monitor Practice Evaluate Performance Decision Situation
Activities and Decisions	Collect Data Admit, Reject, Probable	Collect Data Analyze and Synthesize Promote, Recycle, Probate, Expel	Collect Data Analyze and Synthesize Graduate, Recycle, Expel	Collect Data Analyze and Synthesize Certify or Recycle

Several groups can have meaningful input to this selection process, although those who will work with the student most closely--faculty, teachers, school systems--probably have the greatest justification for participation at this point. A number of unresolved problems complicate this step immensely, and those are the difficulties of developing criteria for selection which have a real impact on the type of teacher to be produced. Some factors thought to be important, such as personality and attitude variables, are difficult to assess. In addition, there is resistance by some groups to the use of such factors in selection. In general, a broad-based group should participate in the development of admission criteria.

The second phase is composed of the actual "program" experiences. Here the students receive their training, their progress is evaluated, and they move on to subsequent courses or stages of training. Participation at this stage is logically restricted to those who work directly with the students. However, in the more experience-based programs, parents and other community agencies will want to take part in some planning, instruction, and evaluation.

The "graduation" phase is characterized by a review of the students' performance and an evaluation to determine whether these performances meet predetermined standards. This phase represents a closure on the program. Again, those people who worked closely with the students--faculty, teachers, and school systems--could be meaningfully involved in this determination.

The last phase involves "certification". This process has traditionally been a cooperative one between colleges of education and state departments. Alternative methods of certification are being considered by numerous groups.

These range from nationally-determined patterns to the analyses of competencies by local schools and communities. In general, the students' competencies--direct or implied--are evaluated, and a determination is made whether or not they are to be certified as teachers. Again, the key issue is the development of criteria on which to make the judgments. The criteria for certification will, of course, have profound implications on the nature and the content of teacher education programs. Participation of various groups in this activity seems justified. However, if a system of local certification is adopted, the resulting variety of required competencies and acceptable means of demonstrating these may make it almost impossible for any one program of training to satisfy many local systems.

With this clarification of some of the possible areas of cooperative input into programs, it is appropriate to move closer to the roles which various groups might play in the governance process. To better understand this, it is helpful to look at some of the practices and pressures which might be important to each group. We have chosen to label this a group's "typical functioning profile", and it is simply an attempt to list some of the typical ways each particular group is likely to react concerning some of the issues regarding the training of teachers. This is not an attempt to provide an exhaustive list of possible behaviors. It does, however, suggest an approximation of the influences of each group on program decisions, and it further suggests some of the directions the program might take based on a specific mix of influences. Many of the profile elements and this method of analysis are based on a paper by Martin Haberman (1973). By increasing

or decreasing the intensity of involvement and participation of each group, it is possible to obtain at least a rough prediction of the functioning profile of the total interactive process of these groups (see Table III).

Some actual models for facilitating this interaction can now be considered. Moore (1967), in talking about higher education consortia, worked out a nomenclature for the various arrangements of implementing and managing interinstitutional cooperation. These labels can be used here, because they describe most of the possible ways in which the various groups can interact for governance purposes.

The first arrangement is the "single bilateral" (see Figure 9). This is the simplest form of interaction and occurs between two entities. Program and/or governance cooperation could occur in this case between any two units--a college of education and a school, or a school system, or the state department, or the college of arts and sciences, etc. The interactions are direct, and no intermediary organization is set up to operate the arrangement.

A second arrangement is the "fraternal bilateral," which is similar to the single bilateral except that one unit is in a cooperative arrangement with several others (see Figure 10). Here also, several groups can be represented--a college of education could have arrangements with several schools or school systems. This particular arrangement does not lend itself to involving units, such as the community, that do not offer program elements. Cooperation here tends to be directly between two units at a time and not interactive among all the units.

A third arrangement is the "multilateral--simple and centered" (see Figure 11). In this case several units co-operate on a particular program, with one of the units

Table III.

TYPICAL FUNCTIONING PROFILES OF ORGANIZATIONS CONCERNED WITH THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS

	Typical Functioning Profile
College of Education	1. Emphasis on theory 2. Orientation to "courses" and "credits" 3. Generally high regard for students' freedom and individuality 4. Perceive teacher preparation as global rather than aimed at a particular school, community, culture, or socio-economic group
College of Arts & Sciences	1. Specific academic requirements 2. Professional education course requirements reduced to state minimums. 3. Academic departments dealing directly with state departments relative to certification 4. Student selection based on tradiational criteria such as grades and certain required courses 5. Little responsiveness to quotas or needs for particular kinds of teachers 6. Little responsiveness to classroom teachers, administrators, community, or children 7. Field experiences not supervised by college faculty; this would be done by teaching assistants and public school personnel

8. Little emphasis on performance based objectives
9. Extensive program diversity in the academic disciplines
10. Program development centered at the graduate level

State Department

Typical Functioning Profile

1. Emphasis on statutory requirements for program and certification
2. De-emphasis of "approved program" system of certification
3. Sensitivity to educational and personnel needs throughout the state
4. Student selection based on statewide needs
5. Preference for behavioral competencies for certification
6. Greater responsiveness to public school administrators than to teachers' organizations
7. Concern with fiscal and learning accountability

Community

Typical Functioning Profile

1. Emphasis on fundamental skills and basic areas of knowledge
2. Emphasis on the value system of the particular neighborhood or community where they are employed

3. Desire for children to be making "normal" progress in school

4. Intolerance of radical or deviant thinkers

5. Desire to be involved in decisions on staffing their particular school building, requirements for certification, and tenure

6. Support a traditional viewpoint on curriculum matters and would probably not favor a great deal of innovation

7. Tend to think in terms of a particular school building rather than the total school system or the larger issues of the teaching profession

Local School System

Typical Functioning Profile

1. Tend to be responsive to the parents and community

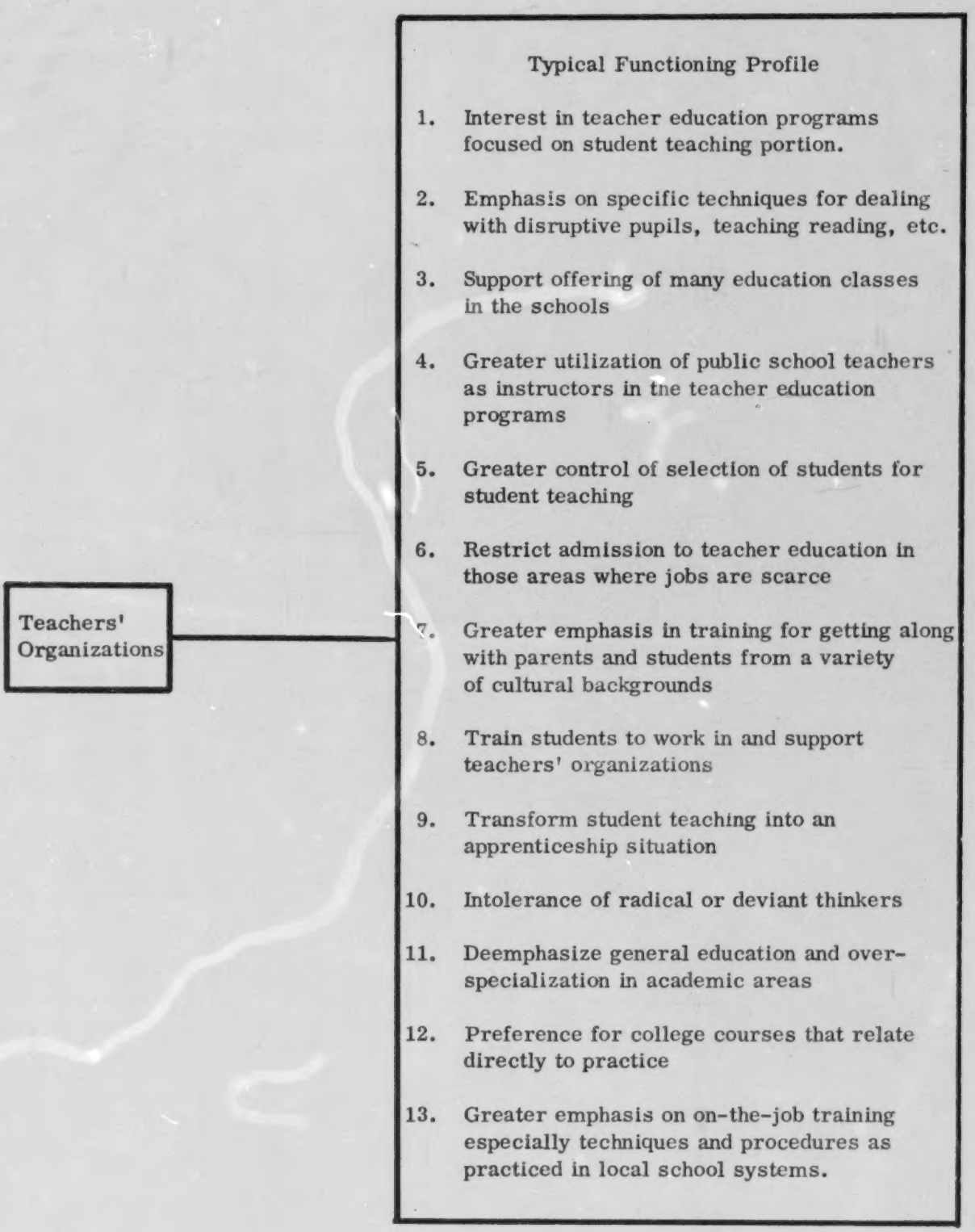
2. Strong emphasis on methods, techniques, and instructional systems utilized by the school district.

3. Support performance-based teacher education

4. Will seek human relations skills in teachers

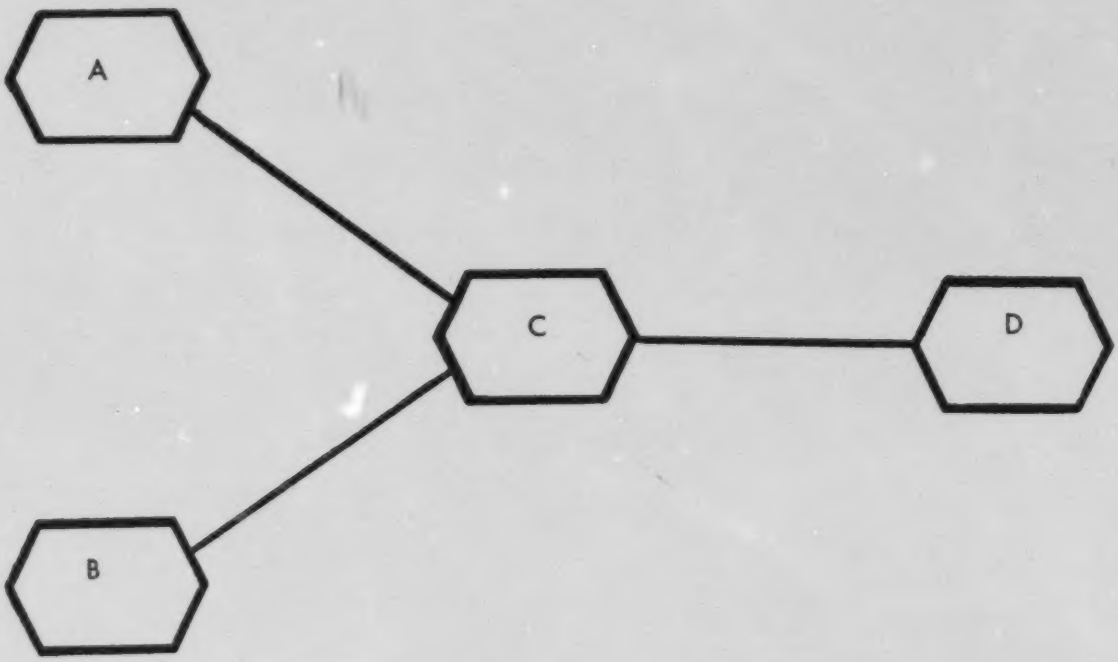
5. Avoidance of radical or deviant thinkers

6. Emphasis on "practical" aspects of teacher education


Teachers' Organizations
Typical Functioning Profile
1. Interest in teacher education programs focused on student teaching portion.
2. Emphasis on specific techniques for dealing with disruptive pupils, teaching reading, etc.
3. Support offering of many education classes in the schools
4. Greater utilization of public school teachers as instructors in the teacher education programs
5. Greater control of selection of students for student teaching
6. Restrict admission to teacher education in those areas where jobs are scarce
7. Greater emphasis in training for getting along with parents and students from a variety of cultural backgrounds
8. Train students to work in and support teachers' organizations
9. Transform student teaching into an apprenticeship situation
10. Intolerance of radical or deviant thinkers
11. Deemphasize general education and over-specialization in academic areas
12. Preference for college courses that relate directly to practice
13. Greater emphasis on on-the-job training especially techniques and procedures as practiced in local school systems.

SINGLE BILATERAL

Figure 9.



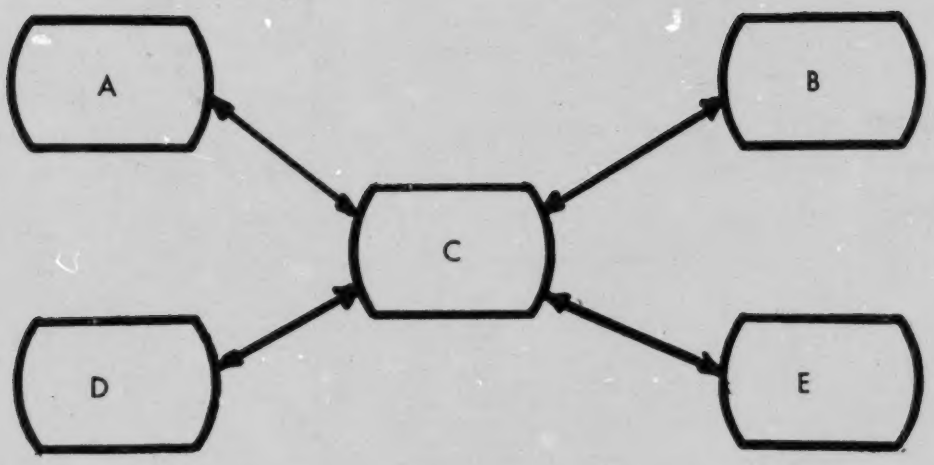
FRATERNAL BILATERAL

Figure 10.

serving as the administrative center for managing the program. Present teacher education programs function most often on this sytem, with schools, school systems, and state departments forming the satellite units, while the central unit is the College of Education.

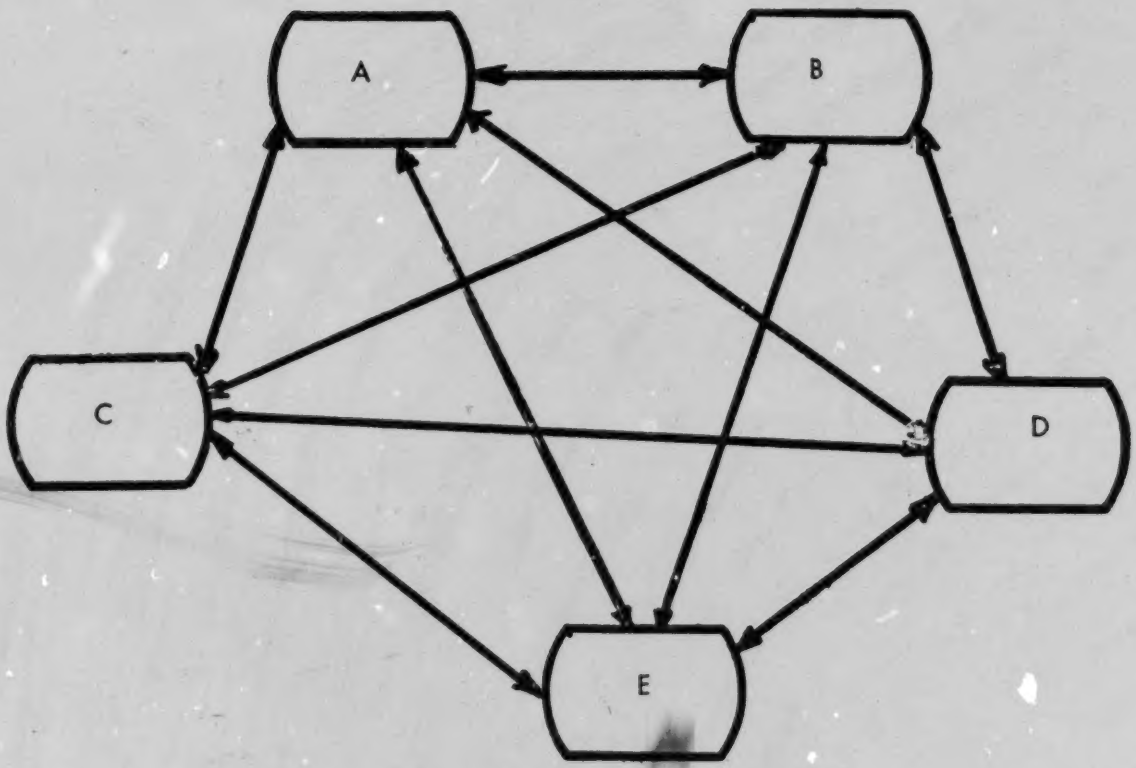
A similar arrangement is called "multilateral--simple and dispersed" (see Figure 12). Such a system is useful for operating a number of different programs simultaneously, with program "centers" being located in several units. There tends to be interaction among all of the units in this arrangement. It may be a particularly useful structure for experimentation and innovation, allowing for a variety of programs to function with a variety of participants. "Power" centers could be located in different places, depending upon the nature of the program.

The "multilateral--complex and centered" (see Figure 13) arrangement involves the establishment of a new and separate administrative entity for the purpose of administering particular programs. The Urban Education Center in Louisville--established and operated jointly by the Louisville Public School System, the University of Louisville, and the University of Kentucky--is an example of this arrangement. The overall autonomy of the participants can be maintained, while jurisdiction for particular programs can be placed totally under the central agency. For this structure, arrangements for representation must be planned by the participants. These consortium centers usually have a separate staff to operate the center and to manage the programs. The staff members, in turn,



MULTILATERAL--SIMPLE AND CENTERED

Figure 11.



MULTILATERAL--SIMPLE AND DISPERSED

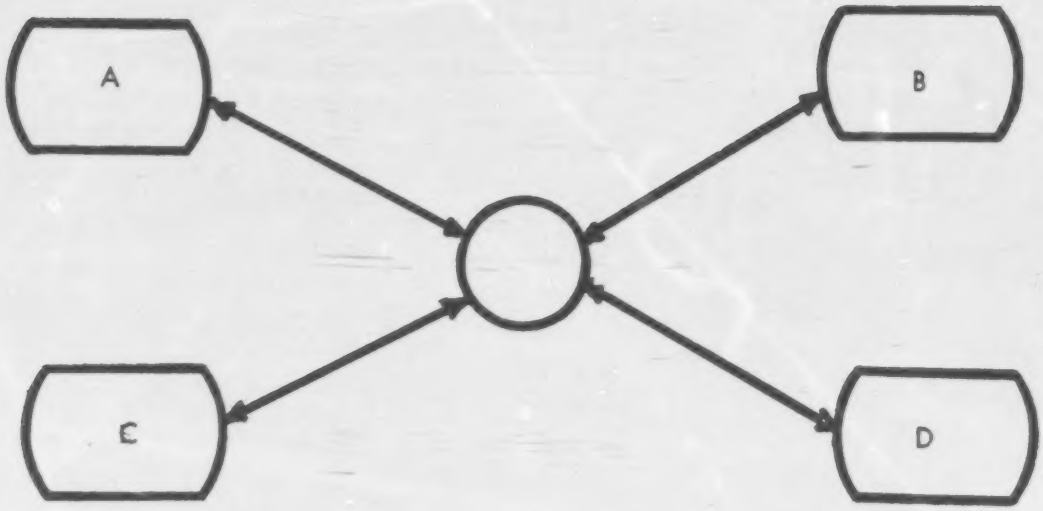
Figure 12.

are responsible to a governing board composed of representatives from member organizations.

The "multilateral--complex and dispersed" (see Figure 14) arrangement is similar to the one mentioned above, but the separate administrative centers are located at several units. Thus, a variety of programs can be operated through different administrative structures which are located in an appropriate way with only one of the participants. This particular arrangement is unrealistic for teacher education in the sense that one school system would not normally be exercising jurisdiction over programs in other school systems. However, educational cooperatives have in some cases utilized such intersystem administration with very specific programs.

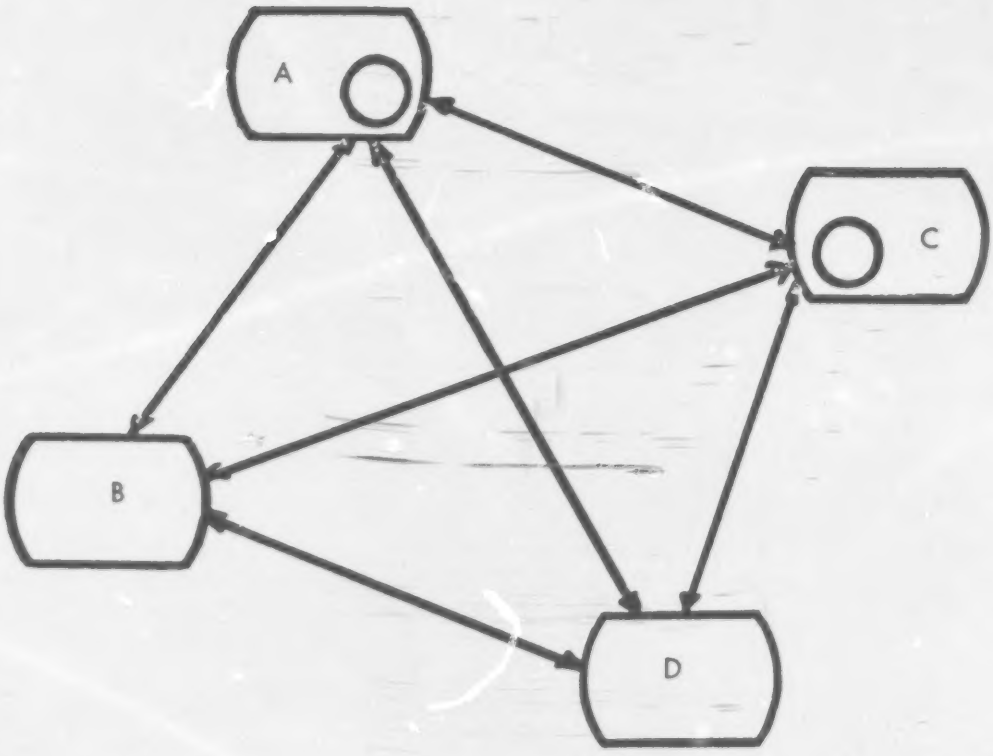
The "center" arrangement is described here as a service agency rather than as an administering structure (see Figure 15). Such a center is established to provide a service to the participants, and this could cover such activities as research, computer services, student teaching supervision, and graduate residence centers. To the extent that such a center obtains greater program jurisdiction and exerts governance pressures back on the participants, it becomes more like the previously mentioned multilateral complex and centered arrangement.

The most complex arrangement is called a "constellation of consortia" (see Figure 16). This involves the establishment of a separate, central administrative structure by two or more multilateral/complex and centered organizations. If a number of universities, school systems, and other groups have formed consortia to administer teacher education programs, then a statewide or regional confederation of these groups would be accomplished through this structure.



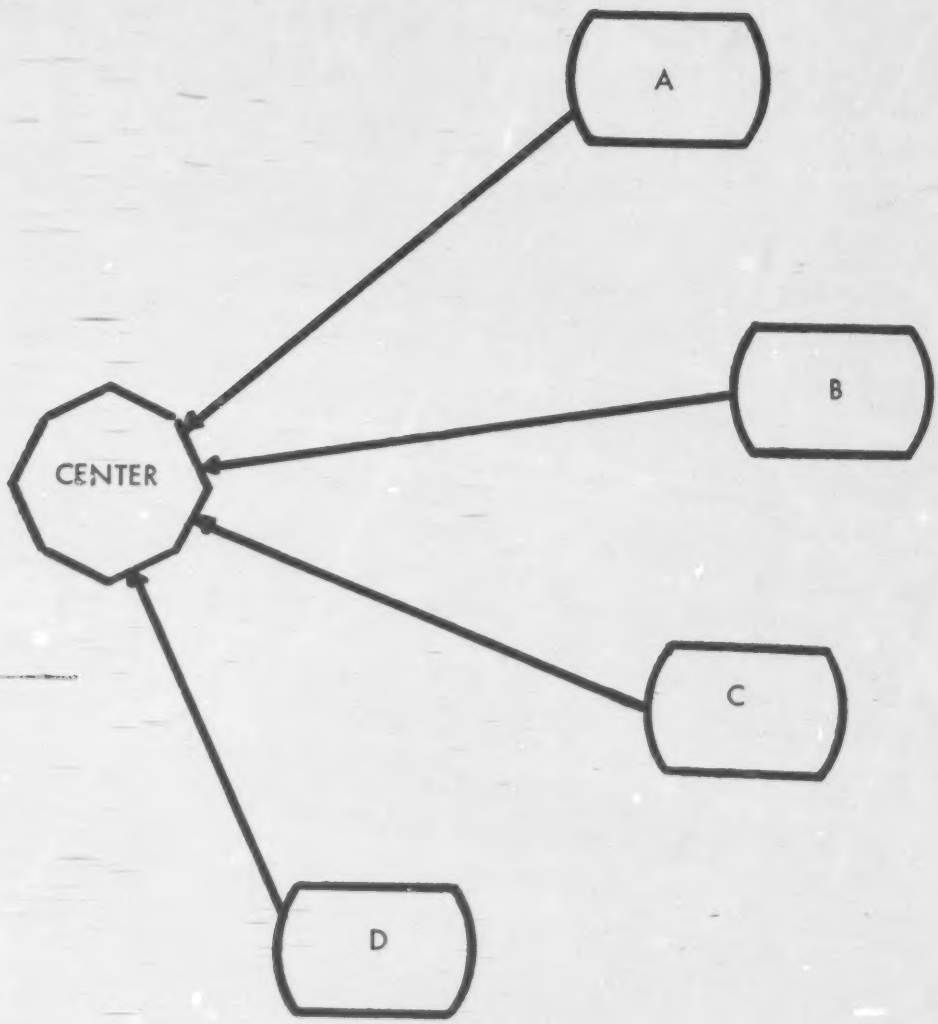
MULTILATERAL--COMPLEX AND CENTERED

Figure 13.



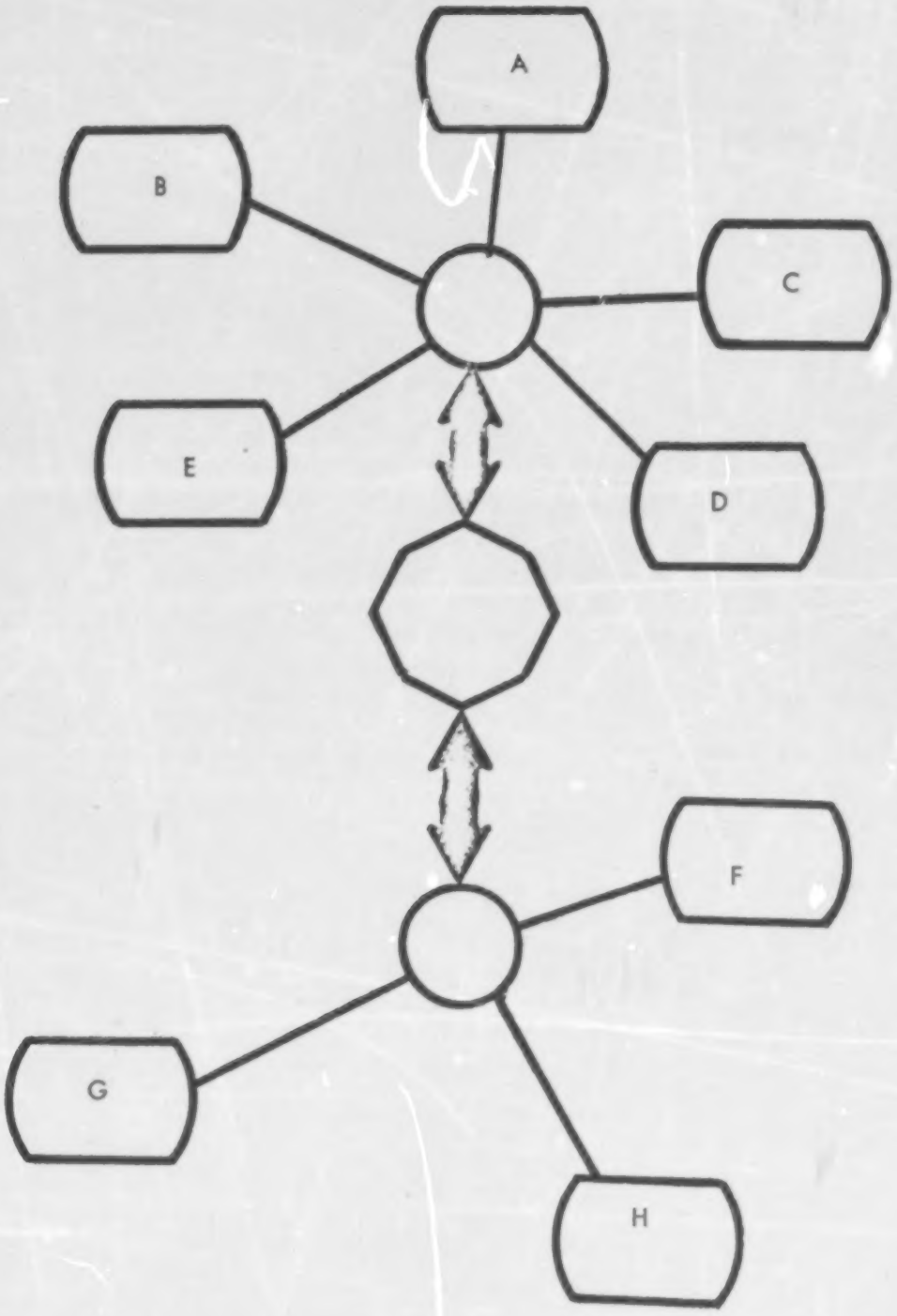
MULTILATERAL--COMPLEX AND DISPERSED

Figure 14



COLLEGE OR UNIVERSITY CENTER

Figure 15.



CONSTELLATION OF CONSORTIUMS

Figure 16.

A synthesis of the governance model discussions suggests that a number of elements can be integrated and viewed now as a single model (see Figure 17). Basically, the model depicts the interaction of the participating groups/systems with the program components and program phases. Local conditions and needs will determine: (1) which groups will participate, (2) to what extent each will participate at the various phases, (3) through which structures each will participate, and (4) what the program components and phases will look like as a result of this interaction. The variables, or the options, for the local planners become: (1) the participating groups, (2) the governance structure, (3) the nature of participation and representation, (4) the program components, and (5) the degree of involvement by each group relative to each program component and phase. The latter can be adjusted hypothetically by applying the "typical functioning profile" for each group and analyzing the interactive effect produced by adjusting the relative governance strength for each group. In the model, for a particular program phase decision, Group 2 has a great deal of involvement, Groups 1 and 5, have some involvement, and Groups 3 and 4 are not involved at all. Participation by each group will vary according to the program component or phase under consideration.

This approach has not resulted in a single "best" model that can be picked up and utilized by all teacher education programs across the nation. Instead, the models presented here are meant to illustrate a range of alternatives which could be used by local planners for arriving at improved teacher education programs. The mix of participants will surely differ from place to place, and the arrangements for governance will vary with the needs and the demands of the individual groups.

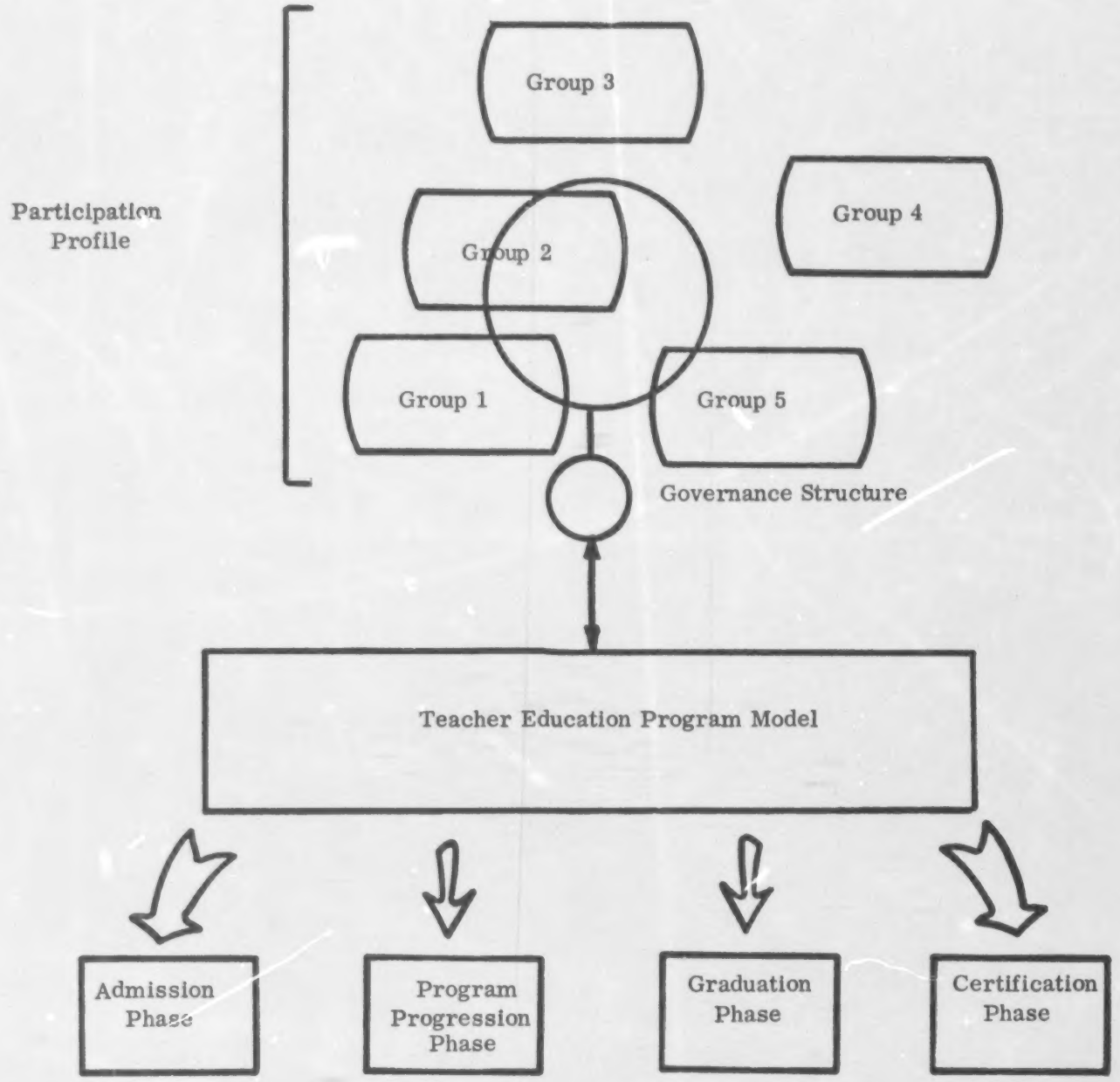


Figure 17. -- Interaction of Participation Profiles and Governance Structures with the Components of a Teacher Education Program

In general, the approach has been inter-systemic rather than advocating the creation of a new super-system to encompass all things related to teacher education. The maintenance of a pluralistic structure can probably provide a healthier setting for education and an improved training program for teachers. Each group can make a valuable contribution, and the trick will be to arrange the proper orchestration of the participants to maximize their involvement at the appropriate points and to achieve the desired programmatic results.

Chapter IV

PLANNING AND OPERATIONALIZING NEW GOVERNANCE MODELS

The Planning Process

Every educator could probably think up a general system of educating teachers which would suit his particular biases and attitudes. The difficult aspects of such an endeavor are the problem of relating broad philosophies to actual programmatic operational details and the problem of moving such models from the realm of theory toward function. It is much easier to theorize that teachers should be sensitive and sympathetic to the variety of cultures represented in their classrooms than to designate the specific academic and socio-cultural experiences a student should have in order to develop this particular sensitivity. An even greater level of difficulty is connected to the task of operationalizing the designated activities with the available faculty, budget, field experience settings, etc.

It is far beyond the scope of this paper to provide all the solutions to these problems, but there are some procedures which can be harnessed to enhance the operationalization of theoretical models. Implementation should be preceded by thorough planning and should be facilitated by adequate project management.

The development of a plan stems from the need to gain maximum control over a particular environment. The functional efficiency of any organization depends in great measure upon its ability to maintain order internally and with the environment, to be prepared for contingencies, to reduce risk, to anticipate

potentially damaging situations, to prepare sets of reactions to those situations, and to thereby have some control over the outcomes of future events. It is in part this need to avoid uncertainty which inspires the development of specified courses of action or determines directed change. All this could in a general way be called planning.

From these elements it can be seen that plans and planning are inherently deterministic--tempered by the degree of willingness on the part of individuals to endure a certain amount of anxiety and uncertainty by deviating from the predetermined activity chain--and that they project this determinism into the future. A "flexible" plan is less deterministic only to the extent that it provides either a greater number of alternatives, anticipates a greater number of contingencies, is sufficiently vague (which calls into question its overall usefulness as a plan), or is subject to deviation by those actors following its guidelines in the future. These two concepts --determinism and penetration into the future--are important components of every definition of planning. Henri Fayol (1959) defines a plan as:

> The plan of action is, at one and the same time, the result envisaged, the line of action to be followed, the stages to go through, and methods to use. It is a kind of future picture wherein proximate events are outlined with some distinctness, whilst remote events appear progressively less distinct, and it entails the running of the business as foreseen and provided against over a definite period.

With regard to the planning process, Koontz (1958) says:

> Planning is the conscious determination of courses of action designed to accomplish purposes.

Freidmann's (1967) definition implies his belief that planning outlines the utilization of ways and means to bring about change that would not have otherwise occurred.

He says planning is:

> . . . the guidance of change within a social system. . . . Accordingly, the idea of planning involves confrontation of expected with intended performance, the application of controls to accomplish the intention when expections are not met, and the observation of possible variances from the prescribed path of change, and the repetition of this cycle each time significant variations are perceived. . . . Planning may be simply regarded as reason acting on a network of ongoing activities through the intervention of certain decision structures and processes.

A more concise definition is offered by Richard Anderson (1958):

> To plan is to determine a forward program for governing the future affairs of an interprise.

Dror (1963), one of the leading planning theorists, stresses the decision making aspect, although he goes on to point out elsewhere that planning is something more than only decision making:

> Planning is the process of preparing a set of decisions for action in the future, directed at achieving goals by optimal means.

Whereas Anthony (1965) categorizes planning in relation to goal and decision level, Friedmann (1967) categorizes planning on the basis of function and creativity as they relate to the promotion of change. Friedmann's functional typologies include "developmental" and "adaptive" planning. The former involves basic policy decisions and implies a high degree of autonomy in setting ends and choosing means. Adaptive planning, as the name suggests, is concerned with decisions which are heavily dependent on the actions of others, is often opportunistic, and sometimes accommodate to various opportunities for external financing (e.g., foundations or government grants supporting specific projects.).

Two additional typologies suggested by Friedmann are "innovative" and "allocative" planning. The features of this first type are:

1. Seeks to introduce and legitimize new social objectives.
2. Concerned with translating general value propositions into new institutional arrangements and definite patterns of action.
3. More concerned with mobilizing resources than in their optimal allocation among competing uses.
4. Focuses primarily on the immediate and narrowing defined results of the proposed innovation.

Allocative planning involves the assigning of resources among competing uses.

The Planning Procedure

Several of the characteristics inherent in plans and the planning process have already specified several steps to be taken in the actual formulation of a plan. A procedure similar to decision making has been discussed. The dimensions of complexity, significance, comprehensiveness, time, etc., further impose certain considerations and techniques on the procedure itself. The gathering of information alone can be a monumental task, utilizing many approaches and exploring a variety of avenues. But the immediate aim is to establish a step-by-step planning procedure in general form that can be applied to operational projects. The procedure developed by Koontz and O'Donnell (1964) lists six steps in planning:

1. Establishing objectives--(a) what is to be done, and (b) where the primary emphasis is to be placed.

2. Premising--(a) forecast data, (b) analyze existing organization plans, and (c) consider planning assumptions.
3. Determining alternative courses.
4. Evaluating alternative courses--(a) assisted by operations research and mathematical and computing techniques.
5. Selecting a course.
6. Formulating derivative plans.

The planning of new administrative structures can be categorized into three broad phases--(1) determination of educational and administrative needs, and resources of the individual units considering cooperation, (2) determination and definition of an organizational structure which can best satisfy the needs and (3) identification of the processes necessary to establish the desired organization. Progression through these phases is depicted in Figure 18.

To further illustrate this model, in an organization geared toward change, there would be an ongoing analysis of the status quo--that is, both the college of education and the school system would periodically review their respective roles in the teacher training process. Other groups--depending on the degree to which they are organized and are thereby able to analyze their role as an entity--would also analyze their activities in relation to the teacher preparation program. Parents and other community groups might or might not be able to identify their roles in the process. On the other hand, a State Department of Education would have a clear conception of where and how it fits into the picture. In any event, each concerned group interested in change would analyze its current activities from a standpoint

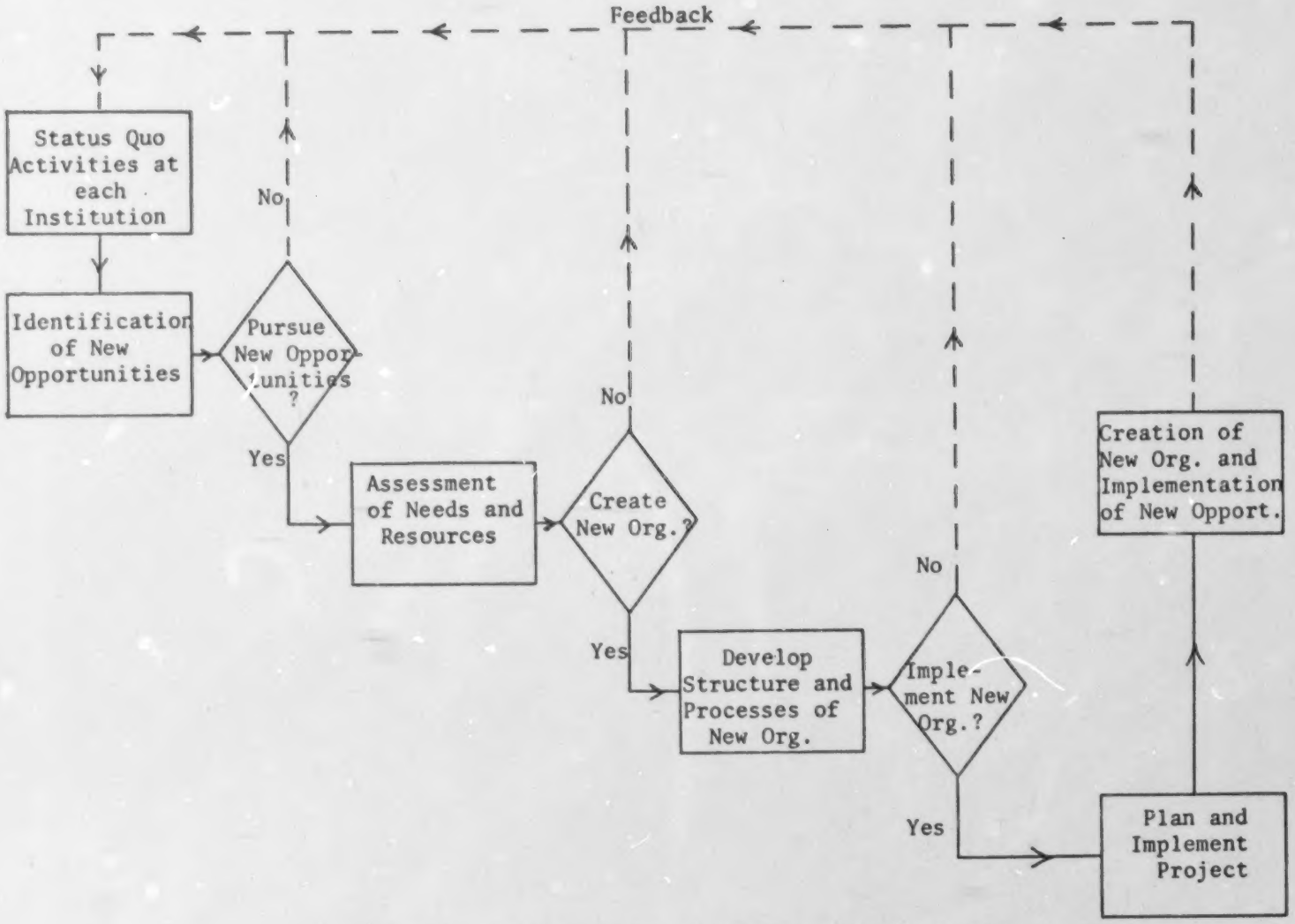


Figure 18.--Planning and Decision Phases Leading to the Establishment of a New Organizational Structure

of contributive value and try to identify new roles and program opportunities. Therefore, Colleges of Education, school systems, parents in the community, a[illegible]r agencies would try to determine if the products of teacher education programs need to be different in some way. These characteristics must be specifically identified. This leads to the further questions of whether or not programmatic or organizational changes are desirable in order to effect the desired learning of these characteristics on the part of the prospective teachers.

If it is felt by several of the concerned parties that the graduates of the teacher education program should be more familiar with and feel more comfortable with particular in-classroom methodological techniques, then these techniques must be related to specific program features, such as theoretical discussion, micro-teaching experience, or particular kinds of field experiences in the schools. This in turn leads to the first major decision point: should the desired outcomes and related program changes be pursued and implemented? If the decision is "no", then each group continues its current role in the program, pending further evaluation and identification of program needs. If the decision is "yes", a careful analysis of the needs and resources is initiated to determine where and how the program changes can best be initiated.

It is at this point that the question of changes in governance structures would first be introduced, so that changes in governance would be an outgrowth of identified needs related to program and product considerations. The choices now are between implementing a new governance structure or implementing the program

change within the current framework of program operation and control. If the decision on change in administrative structure is "no", the program changes are integrated into the current system. If the decision is "yes", planning must then begin on the structure and processes of the new organization.

After the appropriate groups have prepared the plans for the new structure, another major decision point is available to the participating parties--and this is whether or not to proceed with the actual implementation of a cooperative administrative arrangement. If the decision is "no", the planners have the option of replanning the structure or reconsidering the possibility of implementing the program changes through existing arrangements. If the decision is "yes", the new governance model is planned in greater detail and implementation procedures are initiated.

A study of the planning and establishment procedures of five major higher education consortia (Sagan, 1969) revealed a great deal of similarity in the processes and activities each group of colleges utilized to establish their consortium. These consortia took the form of organizations which were separate and distinct from the individual member institutions but were set up to implement the desired cooperative programs and services of the members. Such consortium structures and functions are similar to arrangements that are suggested for cooperative governance of teacher education. If there were similarities in establishment among these organizations, the procedures can very likely be generalized to the establishment of consortium-type governance models among the groups directly concerned with a teacher education program. Support for this

generalizability of planning and implementation activities was provided in a study of the procedures followed in the establishment of the Center for Learning Resources for Allied Health at the University of Kentucky (Sagan and Morgan, 1972).

An examination of the planning model (Figure 18) indicates that the planning activities can be divided roughly into two phases--early and advanced planning. Activities comprising the early planning phase are listed below. In actual implementation, several of these activities can occur simultaneously, and their interrelationship can be depicted best by a network diagram (Figure 19).

Planning Steps	Specific Activities
1. General movement from informal beginnings to some structured organization of the planning includes:	a. Earliest informal discussions. b. Prepare a broad preliminary proposal. c. Determine broad guidelines for a unit's participation in planning. d. Determine type of representation for planning from each unit. e. Establish a planning phase "executive" committee. f. Designate a project manager. g. Organize a project planning team. h. Obtain literature and information from other consortia.

Planning Steps	Specific Activities
	a. Identify each unit's needs and goals.
2. Identification of program/ services which might be offered by the potential consortium:	b. Organize task groups for planning the programs or services to be offered by the consortium.
	c. Determine constraints on potential programs.
	d. Compare program benefits with costs and select several potentially feasible programs.
	e. Develop preliminary program outlines.
	a. Decide on a method of sharing planning costs.
	b. Select a temporary "fiscal officer."
3. Development of financial arrangements for both planning and eventual consortium operation:	c. Identify operational areas that may require expenditures.
	d. Establish guideline budgets.
	e. Identify possible resources and amounts of income.
	f. Make banking arrangements, if necessary.
	g. Devise or tie into an accounting system for the planning processes.
	h. Obtain funds from participating units.
4. Survey of each unit's resources.	a. Conduct a thorough survey of the specific needs and resources of each participating unit.

Planning Steps	Specific Activities
5. Information/communication/publicity:	a. Determine the type of information to be disseminated both internally and externally.
	b. Designate sources of official information.
	c. Designate recipients of information.
6. Utilization of consultants:	a. Develop objectives for the consultant.
	b. Select a consultant.
	c. Provide for information flow between the consultant and the planners.
7. Processing the approval to proceed with consortium plannings:	a. Analyze reports from the several areas mentioned previously.
	b. Prepare a master plan for the consortium.
	c. Obtain approval of the plan from each unit.
	d. Formalize the agreement to proceed with the establishment of a consortium.

The following activities comprise the advanced planning and implementation phase (illustrated in Figure 20).

Planning Steps	Specific Activities
1. Development of the formal organization:	a. Devise operational policies, goals, and structure.
	b. Determine authority relationships.
	c. Draw up official working agreement or incorporation documents.

Planning Steps	Specific Activities
	d. Accomplish the incorporation process if this is necessary.
	e. Organize applicable governing and advisory groups such as a Faculty/ Teacher Council, Student Advisory Committee, and a Long Range Planning Group.
2. The employment of the executive officer:	a. Designate a search committee.
	b. Accomplish job and salary analyses.
	c. Develop a job description and salary range.
	d. Screen candidates.
	e. Select an executive director.
	f. Formalize the employment arrangement.
	g. Terminate former employment.
	h. Assumption of duties by the executive director.
3. The provision of central office facilities:	a. Determine space needs.
	b. Determine site.
	c. Determine equipment needs.
	d. Determine cost.
	e. Arrange for the facilities.
	f. Move into the facilities.

Planning Steps	Specific Activities
4. The employment of clerical personnel:	a. Analyze clerical needs.
	b. Accomplish job and salary analyses.
	c. Develop job descriptions and salary ranges.
	d. Screen candidates.
	e. Select personnel.
	f. Formalize the employment arrangement.
	g. Terminate former employment.
	h. Assume new duties.
5. Program/services development:	a. Reactivate the program planning groups.
	b. Develop program and funding proposal procedures.
	c. Select initial program/services to be offered.
	d. Arrange for outside agencies to provide certain services where necessary.
	e. Arrange for program staffing.
	f. Develop a system of program evaluation.
6. The consortium financial system:	a. Arrange for a financial consultant.
	b. Analyze the accounting system needs of the consortium.

Planning Steps	Specific Activities
	c. Develop a system for comparing costs and contributed services, facilities, and personnel among participating institutions.
	d. Devise the consortium accounting system or tie into an existing system.
	e. Determine hardware and software needs of the accounting system.
	f. Confirm or revise previous banking arrangements.
	g. Close out the planning accounting system and phase into a permanent consortium accounting system.
	h. Establish policies on investment of special and reserve funds.
	i. Obtain budget information for operational and program areas.
	j. Determine and collect dues from member institutions.
	k. Apply for tax exempt status.
7. Consortium information/ communiciation/ publicity systems:	a. Make decisions concerning kinds of interconnection, publicity, and publications.
	b. Visitations by the executive director to member institutions.
	c. Publicize program and interchange opportunities to the students.
	d. Establish a liaison with campus newspapers.

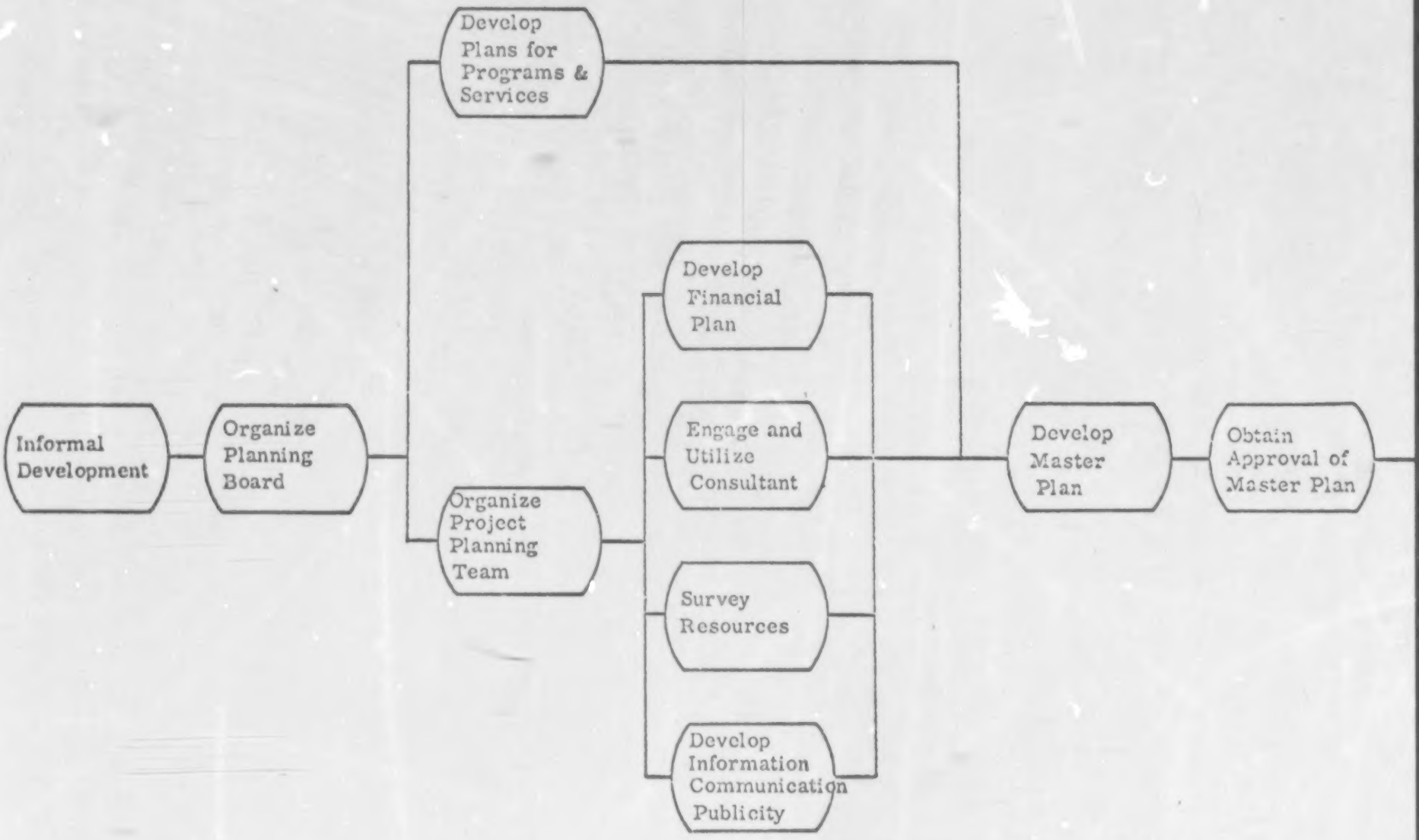


Figure 19.--Early Planning Phase

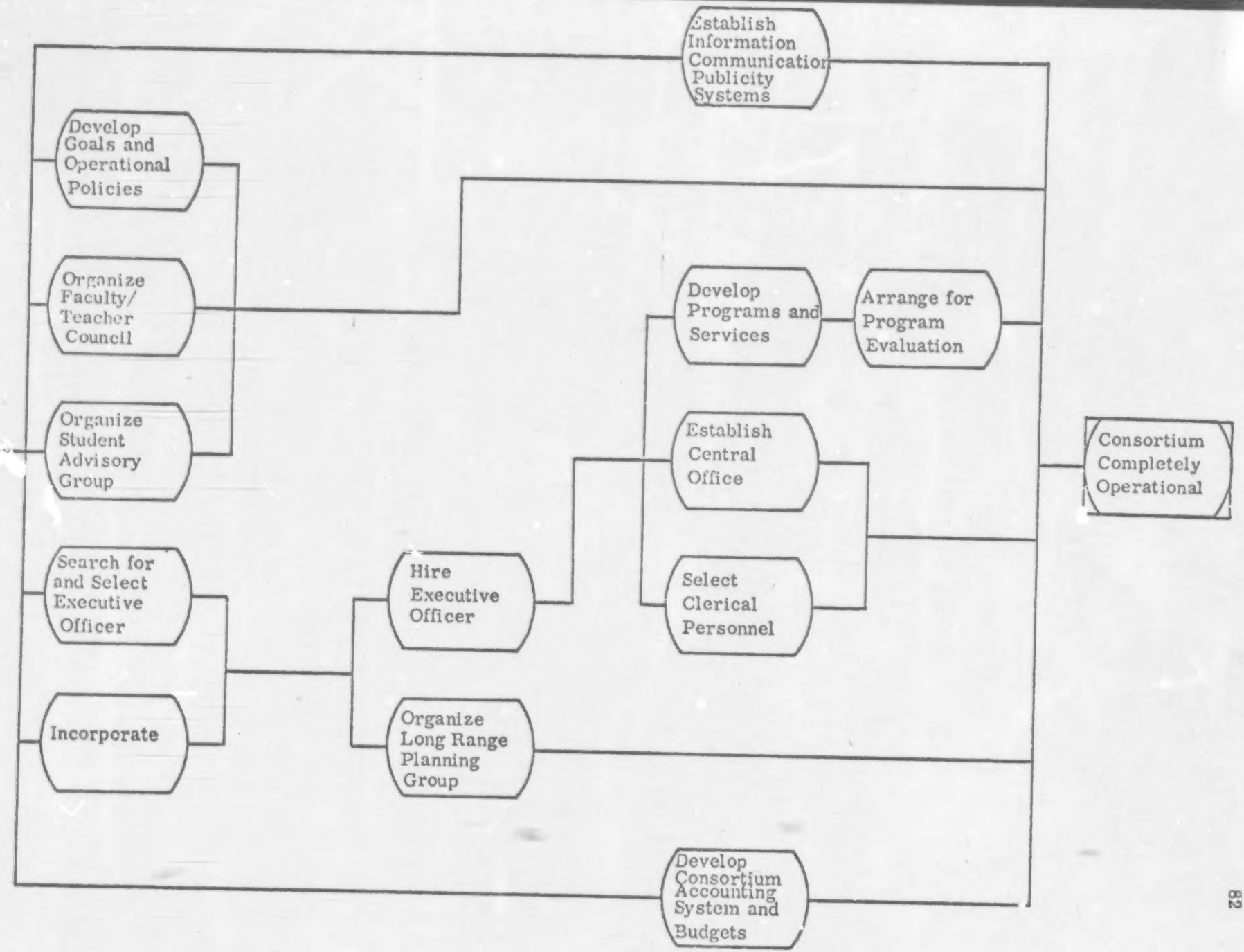

Establish Information Communication Publicity Systems
Develop Goals and Operational Policies
Organize Faculty/ Teacher Council
Organize Student Advisory Group
Search for and Select Executive Officer
Incorporate
Hire Executive Officer
Organize Long Range Planning Group
Develop Programs and Services
Arrange for Program Evaluation
Establish Central Office
Select Clerical Personnel
Consortium Completely Operational
Develop Consortium Accounting System and Budgets

Figure 20.--Advanced Planning Phase

Not all of these steps will apply to every cooperative planning situation, and this model needs to be replanned to fit local needs and conditions. Also, greater detail can be added to meet the planning needs in a variety of situations. Generally, the fewer people involved in a cooperative arrangement, or the less complex the contributing parties, the simpler and less formal the arrangement can be.

Project Management

For most of the groups involved in this co-operative venture, it is a new and unique effort. Very likely no one on the staff has had specific experience with planning a new system, much less operationalizing it and monitoring its progress. We will call this unique effort a project. Stewart's (1969) criteria for identifying an undertaking as a project are:

1. Scope--a one-time undertaking (1) definable in terms of a single, specific and result and (2) more comprehensive than the organization has ever undertaken successfully.
2. Unfamiliarity--the project must be unique or infrequent.
3. Complexity--there is usually a high degree of interaction and interdependence among tasks, with assignments overlapping into several functional areas or departments.
4. Stake--the organization must have an interest (often financial) in the outcome.

A project is further typified by the fact that it ends at an objective point in time. Charted over time it would resemble a wave-like curve, rising slowly as the activities are developed and then dropping off as end results are achieved and the planners return to their normal functions or go on to new projects.

Cook (1967) characterizes projects as being finite, complex, homogeneous (one project can be differentiated from another project or from the environment), and nonrepetitive. This homogeneity allows a project to be considered as a system and thereby subject to the application of the various planning and management techniques (such as system analysis) applicable to systems. ". . . the combined applications of system analysis and management techniques would be of immense value in producing better planned and controlled educational projects than has been the case in the past."

Once the undertaking has been specifically identified as a project, an individual from one of the participating groups is designated to serve as project director or project manager. This person is given responsibility for the successful completion of the endeavor. His functions in broad terms include planning, organizing, and controlling. Supporting team members are often added, and they are drawn from various appropriate departments within the participating organizations. In addition, the contributions of other personnel from several departments are solicited throughout the life of the project. This configuration leads to lateral working relationships and information flow--both cutting across departmental, functional, and authority lines. The need to coordinate and direct this conglomeration of personnel and resources effectively underscores the necessity of selecting a well-qualified project director and then providing him with

sufficient authority and back-up support to enable him to carry out his mission. Undertakings of this scope usually require the full-time services of the project director.

One of the keys to successful project management lies in the quality and thoroughness of initial planning. As discussed earlier, the plan provides the framework and direction of the task, anticipates areas of difficulty, and provides for methods of controlling and monitoring the progress of the individual activities and resource allocations throughout the duration of the project. Cook's (1967) general steps for planning and controlling a project are:

1. Establish the goal or objective.
2. Project definition--disassemble the tasks that must be accomplished to attain the objective (system analysis). This step usually results in a hierarchical plan or chart featuring several levels of tasks which lead to goal accomplishment.
3. Develop a project plan--utilize a graphic representation (i.e., a flow graph) of the hierarchical plan, illustrating sequence and relationships encountered in progressing through the project.
4. Establish a schedule--assign time estimates, and eventually calendar dates to each task.

The result is a project system representation which lends itself to progress and resource control.

The regulation and evaluation of project progress is called the control function. It monitors the project, compares the activities to predetermined standards, and exposes deviations so that corrective actions can be taken. Baumgartner (1963) mentions that schedules and progress are basic for project control. Schedules need to contain sufficient detail to enable a comparison to be made between actual progress and the plan estimates. The type and extent of the deviations can be evaluated and appropriate compensatory actions (such as reallocation of appropriate resources) can be taken.

Because projects are often in an adjunct relationship to the usual functions and structures of an organization, specific difficulties can arise. Projects and their management frequently require temporary shifts of responsibility and reporting relationships among their personnel which may disturb the normal functioning. If the working relationships between project managers and functional department heads have not been clearly defined, conflicts of interest can occur. Another characteristic of project management is that decisions must be made quickly. Penalties for delay often cause decisions to be based on relatively few data hastily analyzed. Finally, senior executives can jeopardize a project by lack of awareness, unwarranted intervention, or personal whim. To counteract these difficulties Stewart (1969) suggests three general guidelines for maintaining satisfactory project management:

1. Define the objective--indicate the intent or reason for the project, the scope or what organizational units are involved, and describe the desired end results.

2. Establish a project organization--assign an experienced manager, organize and designate the project manager's responsibilities, limit the project team, and maintain the balance of power (between the manager and sub-organizations).
3. Install project controls--time control by means of network scheduling; cost control by relating cost summaries to work packages; devising commitment reports for the project decision makers, acting early on approximate report data, and concentrating talent on major problems and opportunities; and quality control by clearly defining performance criteria.

Summary

The implementation of a new teacher education system and restructured governance model is a complex experience requiring the integration of a number of techniques and resources. If the proposed organization is to resemble a predetermined model, and if its attainment is to proceed in an orderly and scheduled manner, many of the planning and project management procedures discussed previously will need to be utilized. It is hoped that this discussion will stimulate further thinking, planning, and action relative to the programs and governance of teacher preparation. Planners will have to determine the needs of prospective participating groups, develop objectives for the new system, establish timetables for accomplishment of planning and organizing activities, accommodate the needs and autonomy of the different groups, and monitor the progress of the planning

and organizing activities. Participants may have to make significant financial commitments, provide personnel for the planning tasks, and make adjustments to compensate for the time these planners are away from their administrative or teaching duties.

Many approaches to the revision of the governance of teacher education programs tend to be so general that it is difficult to conceptualize the practical implications of what is being proposed. Educators will talk about the desirability of teacher education graduates being free from racial prejudice, sensitive to the needs of children from non-mainstream cultures, and competent in subject matter and classroom management. However, there is very little agreement on how specific changes in governance and program can accomplish these ends. Perhaps by suggesting some concrete models and guidelines, this paper can help educators work toward operationalizing some of their good thoughts and intentions, in order to produce the best possible teachers for the nation's schools.

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With teachers and within classrooms the lives of children are lived. In these lives the aspirations of parents are realized, and the health and welfare of the community are fostered. Lives, aspirations, community health and welfare, good thoughts and good intentions are the human energies of the national education system. When these energies are allowed to interact, and when their interaction is planned and promoted by educators and administrators in the governance of teacher education programs, a new coherence can emerge, a coherence which unites living and learning and the flow of experiences in any one life with the lives of others. When this new coherence is actively, creatively, and imaginatively developed as a cooperative, lively venture, the lives of children will become the focus of educational planning and programming, the lives of children will become a part of the national education system, rather than apart from it. Toward this goal all efforts for the re-vision and the re-formulation of the governance of teacher education should be directed.

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